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READING VERSE ALOUD

For a hundred people who can sing a song there are not ten who can read a poem. People do not understand the music of words.—*Tennyson*.

This paper might be headed: "Vocal Interpretation of Poetry." Such a title would be not only more grandiose but, as well, more descriptive. The fatal objection against it is that it suggests wider explorations than will be illustrated here. My design is to present but a few examples of lyric verse and to show how Tennyson would have them rendered. Students of poetry should be reminded that poetry addresses emotion as well as intellect.

Let us first of all consider Tennyson's lyric, *Break, break, break*. In his compact volume, *A Handbook to Tennyson's Works*, Luce makes several references to the poem. He associates its origin and its sentiment with those of *In Memoriam*, and devotes not a little space to it, giving almost exclusive attention to the sense of desolation pictured by the poet:

Five times the poet abandons the disguise of speech, and paints his sorrow in a vivid picture. Before us lies the sea, powerless to tell its sobbing trouble to the shore, as wave after wave of utterance dies broken on the cold grey stones. On the shore the children are playing; what could they know of death? Out on the bay the sailor boy is singing in the happy activity of life; in the offing are ships returning from a prosperous voyage, and sailing on majestically to the neighboring port—four pictures in one; and in these the poet expresses more eloquently than in any words the sense of desolation made yet more desolate by contrast with joys it cannot share. . . . The fifth picture is one of the sea breaking hopelessly at the foot of crags that seem to spurn it from its desire; so death stands inexorable between him and all that he loved.

But Luce adds no word about the tonal design of the poet as clearly intimated in the unequal homologous lines of the stanzas and especially in the very short first line of the first and fourth stanza, which thus announces the theme and repeats it at the close.

Luce quite properly considers the poet's grouping of pictures as "a pictorial rather than articulate representation of grief." But the analysis seems to forget that Tennyson has presented us simultaneously with *tone*-pictures as well as *pen*-pictures. Grief, as Lowell reminds us, instinctively hides its face behind its hands, and is silent. If it speak at all, it indulges in no carefully planned sequence of thought. It speaks briefly and brokenly. Before all else, we discern the upwelling of the hidden fountains of sorrow less in the words that are uttered than in the *tone* of the voice and in its listless cadences.

Let us then consider the poem as something to be read, not alone by the eye, but, at least with equal pertinence, by the voice.

Apropos of this, I recall being in the parlor of a quondam professor of English literature on the day of Tennyson's death. The afternoon newspapers, carrying the message of the death, gave also a fair selection from his noted lyrics, and among them was our poem. The professor, himself a most broadly cultured man, read some of them aloud. Coming to our poem, he raced through it, giving the first line only as much time as was necessary for uttering the three syllables contained in it, and then queried: "Where is the poetry in that?" As became his junior by many years, I passed his query over in respectful silence. But I am inclined to think that he has had many cultured imitators in this one respect of insensibility to the tonal values of verse.

Our poem is a wonderful lyric, quite apart from its tonal implications. But these make it fairly immortal. We may well be surprised, therefore, that Mackey should have omitted it from the selections he gives, in his *A Thousand and One Gems of English Poetry*, from Tennyson's verse. One may not be far wrong in suspecting that Dr. Mackey quite missed the tonal intent of the poet. The poem has only sixteen lines; was it too long for inclusion? It would have occupied only one-sixth of the space cheerfully allotted to *Godiva*.

In the first stanza our eye immediately notices, of course, the great brevity of the first line:

Break, break, break,
On thy cold grey stones, O Sea!
And I would that my tongue could utter
The thoughts that arise in me.

This first stanza does not mirror in any obvious manner the metrical scheme. It is more clearly seen in the third stanza:

And the stately ships go on
To their haven under the hill;
But O for the touch of a vanish'd hand,
And the sound of a voice that is still!

Considering English meters to be measures rather of accents than of either the number or the "quantity" of syllables, we perceive that the typical stanza for such a poem would assign four accents to the first line (we might preferably call them four beats) in order to have equal correspondence with the third line, just as the second corresponds with the fourth line.

Now we perceive that the third line in this stanza has ten syllables, but only four "beats." The first line of the first stanza has only three syllables. In reading the line aloud, therefore, we must allot to it the time of the typical four beats. As there are only three syllables, the fourth beat will be, as we often find in music, a silent beat. But again, since the verse is anapæstic (as illustrated in "And I would that my tongue"), there is a silent space before the first word is uttered in the first line of the first stanza. One is reminded of the silent beat prefacing the wonderful first blast of sound in Beethoven's Fifth Symphony.

The design of the poet is made plain. There is the silent onward sweep of the wave, then the sharp "break" against the cold gray stones (of the first stanza) or at the foot of the crags (in the last stanza), then the silent relapse of the broken wave. The very word "break" exhibits onomatopœia. The elements in "br" suggest the strong urge of the impetus carrying the wave forward, and the "k" suggests the sharp clash and futile attack of the wave against the unyielding stones. The reader will accordingly intimate all these tonal values, in so far as the human voice may with proper moderation suggest them.

He will emphasize the three words in the first line, pause after each (a somewhat longer time after the third). The fourth (and last) stanza appropriately repeats the *leit motif* of the lyric:

Break, break, break,
At the foot of thy crags, O Sea!
But the tender grace of a day that is dead
Will never come back to me.

Now it is interesting to note that Tennyson did not compose the poem at the seashore. The *Memoir* written by his son, Hallam Tennyson, informs us that "it was made in a Lincolnshire lane at 5 o'clock in the morning between blossoming hedges." The poet was not more or less idly and inadvertently painting in words a scene that was passing before his eyes. Like Hamlet, he saw it in his "mind's eye"—but since he was thus compelled to some effort in its mental reconstruction, he was a "poet," a "maker" (as the Greeks coined their word) and could fashion his picture as his inspiration should suggest. He thus combined the two various works of the eye and the ear into a *tone-* as well as an *eye-picture*.

A reader may perchance say to himself at this point: "Is not all this rather fanciful and far-fetched theorizing? Does the fine frenzy of the poet afford leisure for such close—albeit exquisite—reasonings, such calculated forewarnings to his readers concerning his tonal or vocal intent and emprise?"

In answer, we may recall the anecdote told of the visit paid to Tennyson by our American poet, T. Buchanan Read. Wishing to compliment the English lyrist, the American picked up a volume of the poems, found the *Bugle Song*, and began to read it aloud, remarking at the same time on its exquisite musical flow. He had scarcely finished the first stanza, however, when Tennyson impatiently (but withal politely, let us hope) interrupted the reading. "I did not write that song," he said, "to have it read in that fashion." And he read it aloud in the manner he desired. His voice was a fine baritone. When he came to the words "Blow, bugle, blow, set the wild echoes flying," he emitted a sonorous vocal blast that imitated, however faintly, the ringing blast of a bugle, pausing long on the word "blow" and on its repetition, quite regardless of the time-

measure of the line. He felt as free with his own composition as a musical composer does when placing the phrase *ad libitum* or a *piacere* over some portion of the melody.

And, indeed, since poetry shares with music the office and the power alike of stirring the emotions, a poet would be justified in annotating his work in some such way as musical composers annotate theirs. We do not smile when the careful composer indicates the *tempo* of a piece, not by the general indication of the older composers, such as *allegro*, *andante*, *prestissimo*, *largo*, and the like, but by most minute and specific markings of Maelzel's Metronome. Nor do we object to such an imploring legend as that which Schumann placed over one of his briefer compositions: *Sehr innig zu spielen*. True it is that the poets are more considerate of the self-respect of their worshipful clients, since they apparently assume that the clients know how to appreciate the emotional side of poetics and need no instruction therein, whether general or specific and detailed. But the compliment they thus generously and modestly pay us should rather stimulate us to more genial and studied attempts to interpret the poems aright.

Those who have visited the Lakes of Killarney *via* the Gap of Dunloe will remember the bugler who, for their delectation, sets the wild echoes flying and returning, beaten back from purple glen and from cliff and scar, and coming to the listening ear more and more faintly but withal clearer, albeit thinner, until their slow steps lead at length to silence in such wise that the last faintest echo is rather surmised than heard. Tennyson says all this in the *Bugle Song*, but seeks also to suggest it to the physical ear as well as declare it to the mental ear. He makes the verse as melodious as possible by rhythm, cadences, internal and end rhymes, so that the background to the theme is as musical as the bugle itself:

The splendor falls on castle walls
And snowy summits, old in story:
The long light shakes across the lakes,
And the wild cataract leaps in glory.
Blow, bugle, blow, set the wild echoes flying,
Blow, bugle; answer, echoes, dying, dying, dying.

The second of the three stanzas both paints and sings the

echoes in greater detail. The near echoes are thin and clear, the farther echoes are thinner and clearer, until one fancies he hears only the imagined horns of Elfland faintly blowing:

O hark, O hear! how thin and clear,
And thinner, clearer, farther going!
O sweet and far from cliff and scar
The horns of Elfland faintly blowing!
Blow, let us hear the purple glens replying:
Blow, bugle; answer, echoes, dying, dying, dying.

Obviously, the triple "dying" represents the gradual thinning of the echoes, and whoso reads the Song aloud should suggest this in the lessening volume of the tone of voice. Just here, however, we encounter a curious but, if understood aright, an effective device of the poet. The Song is melodious and beautifully rhythmized throughout. Strangely, in view of this perfect rhythmizing, we find the last line exceeding by one metrical foot the immediately preceding line with which it rhymes and with which it is therefore meant to correspond. Tennyson could have achieved perfect correspondence by the simple omission of the third "dying." Why did he insist upon having it in every one of his three stanzas?

One may well conjecture that, when the Song was to be read aloud, the last "dying" was intended rather to be intimated than actually heard. Who has not listened to some *maestro* drawing an exceedingly soft, slow, long bow over the string of a violin and gradually lessening the volume of tone until he reaches the stillest of silences? We lean forward, hanging on the sound, until we wonder whether we still indeed hear or only surmise it? And we are led mayhap to an errant fancy that the *maestro* finally is eliciting no sound at all, although still gently moving the bow in order to deceive the anxious ear by an appeal to the imagination. Tennyson had been taken by a friend to hear Joachim's recital. His only comment was on what he called "the *magic* of the *bowing*." Perhaps he caught a suggestion for the last "dying" from this recital? Howbeit, the foot in excess of the typical measure presents an interesting problem for the conscientious reader.

One thing seems sufficiently clear. Tennyson conceived the music of his verse as addressed to the physical and not alone to

the mental ear. The eye perceives meters and rhymes; and the mind, by its native power, forms some picture of the sounds. The picture thus formed is in many—perhaps in nearly all—cases a faint one. It is the poet's business to make the picture as vivid and impressive as patient art will permit.

The eye, for instance, may not perceive anything unmusical in this line,

And freedom broadens slowly down.

The fact that the line was often so quoted is proof enough that even those who took the trouble to quote it, and had therefore doubtless been much impressed by its thought, took no notice of the conjunction of sibilants ("broadens slowly"). Tennyson did not so write the line. He separated the sibilants thus:

And freedom slowly broadens down.

In the *Memoir*, Hallam Tennyson notes that his father once quoted the line,

What dire offence from amorous causes springs,
and declared "horrible" the repetition of sibilants: "Amrus causiz springs," he said: "I would sooner die than write such a line!" We can understand why, as an admirer of Goethe's poetical power, he still contended that Goethe "could not quite overcome the harshnesses of the German language. 'Kennst du das Land' is," he said, "a perfect poem, but 'Beschuetzer ziehn' is a hideous sound in the middle." Similarly, he criticised the line in Collins' poem on the death of Thomson:

The year's best sweets shall duteous rise.

The eye of a reader can read such a line without inconvenience or resentment, and there may also be but little protest, if any, by the mental ear. Read aloud, nevertheless, the line is assuredly not "linkèd sweetness long drawn out."

Let us glance at two of the stanzas in the twelfth canto of *Maud*. They are the first and third:

Birds in the Hall-garden
When the twilight was falling,
Maud, Maud, Maud, Maud,
They were crying and calling.

Birds in our woods sang
 Ringing thro' the valleys,
 Maud is here, here, here
 In among the lilies.

Does our ear note any significance in the variant song of the birds in the Hall-garden and that of the birds in the woods? And yet, in some notes which Tennyson left on *Maud*, he states that he meant the words "Maud, Maud, Maud, Maud" to imitate the rook's caw. Similarly, the line "Maud is here, here, here" was meant to suggest the call of the little birds.

Tennyson's filial biographer also notes that, when reading aloud his *Ode on the Death of the Duke of Wellington*, the poet "dwelt long on the final words, letting them ring, so to speak, especially 'toll'd, Boom.' At the end he said, 'It is a great roll of words, the music of words. For a hundred people who can sing a song there are not ten who can read a poem. People do not understand the music of words.'" It was a just observation. The musical composer enjoys the widest liberty in illustrating a text by musical devices, so that a singer needs hardly do else than follow the printed indications of time, emphasis, manner. Tennyson lingered on the word "toll'd." But Kreutzer, writing his quartette for male voices ("Hark! above us on the mountain, Tolls the mournful funeral bell," etc.), gives the bass two symbolic utterances of "Toll," during the silence of the other voices. The illusion thus created is very beautiful, indeed, but is inescapable. The singers cannot do else but create it.

A final illustration may well be the exquisite tribute paid by Tennyson to a certain kind of music:

Music that gentlier on the spirit lies
 Than tir'd eyelids upon tir'd eyes.

The poet took great care to make the iterated "tir'd" a monosyllable, although it had to occupy the space of two syllables in the meter. If the line is read as it is printed, we shall not only escape the vulgarity of saying "ti-erd," or the precisionism of saying "ti-red," but we shall also insinuate the slow, sleepy closing of eyelids upon eyes.

As an illustration of a great poet's care in this case to have his readers avoid making a dissyllable of "tired," so that he

went to the extreme of twice printing it "tir'd," let me quote from a letter written by another great poet, James Russell Lowell, to his friend Loring, in 1839. He was then slightly past twenty years of age, had written good verse, and was something of a critic besides. It seems that he was displeased at the noisy music of "the Brigade Band," and commented: "They sometimes made a little too much noise for my taste, which is most decidedly for that sort of

Music that gentlier on the spirit lies
Than tired eyelids over tired eyes,

as Tennyson says, more beautifully than any poet I am acquainted with." Thus the lines are printed in Norton's *Letters of James Russell Lowell*, and, I suppose, correctly. We may note, therefore, a curious lack of memory in the word "tired" (spelt in full) as well as in "over" instead of "upon." Doubtless Lowell would have pronounced the word "tired" as a monosyllable; but he seems to have forgotten the care exercised by Tennyson to force the reader so to pronounce it.

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TEACHING THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

The political phase of the science of American history can be pleasantly and easily learned by any student endowed with a fair share of diligence and something more than average ability, provided he approach it in the right way. This cannot be said, however, of the constitutional aspect of this science, for few American citizens have perfectly mastered the principles of our Constitution and, perhaps, fewer still have successfully applied their theoretical knowledge to the problems of actual government. The present paper will not overlook pedagogical principles by first considering the difficult part and thence proceeding to the easier division of the science.

Without attempting anything like a complete enumeration of the topics usually treated in American political history, enough may here be named clearly to indicate its nature and to give a hint of its scope. The first conspicuous theme to attract one who is interested in our annals is the progress of geographical knowledge. Obviously that large subject comprehends the discovery of a New World, an event which gave so great a stimulus to exploration that soon afterward the form and magnitude of the earth were generally known.

There followed an era of colonization. That subject, even if we confine our attention to North America and the West Indies, is vast in extent. It suggests international competition for land, just as in our time there is among the nations a never-ending struggle for raw materials, a rivalry which has become commander-in-chief of the forces that make for public wars. Except race hatred it has no unquestioned superior in all the realms of mischief. The history of colonization informs us of the perils of the sea, of the races who faced them, and of the dangers that were braved by each in winning a livelihood from the wilderness. That was the abode of men and of beasts alike formidable to the pioneer, whose axe and rifle at first formed his defense and then became the nucleus of his capital. To the era of colonization belongs an account of the activities of missionaries, many of them spiritual heroes of the highest order. Though this phase of colonization is sometimes, and without sufficient justification, separately treated as ecclesiastical history, it is closely bound up with the economic and the political life

of the settlers and cannot profitably be separated therefrom. Even before communities became important they were fought over. This condition gives hints of war, and many wars there were between grasping Europeans of different nations and between them and the aboriginal races. To understand the development of the colonies of the leading powers it is necessary to know the physical geography of the land in which they lived and something of the people who occupied the soil before the coming of European adventurers.

A study of the native tribes trespasses upon the somewhat exclusive domain of the anthropologist as well as that of the archaeologist. No part of American history is without its problems. Let him who believes the contrary attempt to explain the great Maya civilization of Yucatan and the adjacent parts of Guatemala or the inferior civilizations of the Aztecs and the Peruvians. For nearly a generation scientists have toiled over the inscriptions and examined the remains of that remarkable people, and it has only been within a few months that they have found a light to guide them on their darkened way. Not only is an outline of anthropology and of archaeology indispensable to one engaged in these investigations, but some acquaintance with geology will be found useful. Besides the preparation for wars and their conduct, the colonists, after a period of barter, soon developed a profitable commerce potentially great. When England sought to restrain their trade, they took steps leading to separation. That suggests the era of independence, a time crowded with important happenings. Presently these will be placed in the groups to which they properly belong.

In that epoch one first comes upon the causes of the Revolutionary War, causes remote as well as recent. Its progress, largely made up of instructive military history and important legislative annals, soon comes to include interesting diplomatic correspondence and eventful treaties. America's resources for carrying on the war, her army, her navy, and her finances must be known. The treaties with France, the assistance of Spain, the friendship of Holland, and the neutrality of Prussia form the first chapter of our diplomatic history. In studying the hesitant monetary systems of the Revolution one acquires valuable information on the subject of public finance, which deals with the income and the expenditure of the state. When the war was

won, clouds lowered about the cradle of the infant republic. The story of how harmony was evoked from the chaos following the war has been the subject of many volumes and of unnumbered essays, which likewise describe the revival of trade.

The movements above suggested bring the reader to the making of the Constitution and the consolidation of the Union thereunder. The starting of the government under President Washington, if adequately treated, would have all the interest of a romance. This is known as the beginning of the National Period, an epoch which in its entirety is charged with the fears, the hopes, the ambitions, the achievements, the chastisements, and the glorious triumph of the American people. That era includes narratives of wars domestic and foreign, an account of the growth of commerce, the development of industries, and the strife of political parties as well as of their rise and fall. The waves of immigration that have broken on these shores, the experiments looking to social improvement, such as the formation of temperance organizations and anti-slavery societies, the attempts to establish the communistic principles of St. Simon, of Fourier, of Leon Cabet, and of Robert Owen are treated in any careful survey of the two decades before the war for Southern independence.

The spiritual unrest in the generation after 1790 as shown by the preaching of Hosea Ballou, of Lorenzo Dow, of the Campbells, of Joseph Smith and Sidney Rigdon is at once interesting and instructive. Our wiser world may believe that the propaganda which won adherents and prosperity for Mormonism would in these times be certain to fail, but the political charlatans of our day gain converts by methods not more worthy of respect than those attempted in the thirties at Kirtland, Ohio, when Joseph Smith walked upon the water and got wet, and when, in Manchester, England, one of the Latter Day Saints went to animate a corpse and witnessed the performance of that miracle by the energetic application of a horsewhip. The rise of the American branch of English literature, the influence of the lyceum, and of a great newspaper press are not to be passed over without observation. If under the term literature one include the literature of knowledge as well as the literature of power, it will be perceived that this topic alone is immense in its range. It goes without saying that education in the United States has a history not less interesting than instructive.

For a beginner in American history the first lesson to learn is that this science, like the territory and the resources of our republic, is boundless, and that it is no more comprised in the condensed histories of the United States known to our youth than literature is comprehended in the alphabet, the primer, and the first reader. It may be insisted, it is true, that the history taught in the grammar grades is at least an index to the topics usually considered in histories prepared for mature readers. Unfortunately the grammar school histories for the most part do not form even a useful index. Instead of weaving a narrative an author is more likely to offer detached fragments of the science, not, indeed, because he prefers that method, but because he does not know the subject as a whole, and has doubts about the interdependence of its parts. The beginner, therefore, should commence by persuading himself that upon all the subjects mentioned there are not only scholarly treatises but upon many of them whole libraries. When at last a teacher is convinced that he has little more knowledge of this science than he has of the institutional history of Thibet or of Kamtschatka, he has progressed to the point at which he may confidently hope. At the outset it was stated that American political history, if properly approached, may be easily and pleasantly learned. A single illustration of this idea will complete the present paper.

All those who have not with miser care considered the main movements in English literature believe that it is a widespread wilderness in which one may forever wander without seeing so much as a single ray to light the darkness of its dells or to give a glimpse of its changing beauty. No paths are visible. Nevertheless, around a few landmarks in the national life much of English literature may be assembled. If carefully and affectionately studied, it will linger long in the memory. Its great movements are easily understood and easily taught, provided the teacher has thoroughly mastered them. But if the instructor does not make some poet the companion of his walks, the chief guest of his evenings, and the solace of his bereavement, he will find it no pleasant task to digest the poetry he has studied. In other words, one's affections have the power greatly to abridge the labor of learning literature.

In American political history no less than in English literature

there appear to be countless topics that have never been drilled for marching. They seem not to keep step. They aimlessly wander, they straggle, and at last flounder in a quagmire that has claimed more victims than that Serbonian bog, between Mount Cassius and Damietta, where, as Milton informs us, "armies whole have perished." The notion that if one has had American history in the grades, it is, therefore, not necessary to study it in college is the *idola tribus*, the delusion of nearly the whole race of teachers in primary and in secondary institutions of learning.

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR

To one who has slightly reflected upon the war for American independence it appears to be touched by all the tides in the affairs of the western world. Of its contacts, indeed, there seem to be no end. Yet, as will appear, its principal aspects may be classified under a few comprehensive heads and for the greater part adapted to the capacity of children in the seventh and the eighth grades. In order, however, that young people may clearly understand so important an historical event as the division of the British empire, their teacher should minutely know the successive steps in the estrangement of England's North American colonies and in their final separation. The more an instructor knows of this science the more interesting will it be possible for him to make it. The present writer has no purpose to attempt an outline of the happenings in the era of independence. But he is convinced that the ways pointed out to him by eminent masters may still be easily and profitably traveled. It should be remarked, however, that though these paths were pleasant, they were not the short-cuts to learning that have been sought by kings. On this journey, which seems to be endless, but really is so only in appearance, there are many desertions. Few are in at the terminus. Not, to be sure, the end of profitable reading but the end of a systematic course of instruction. On that foundation one is prepared to begin his work as a teacher of American history, but without constant additions that small stream of knowledge will not sustain him. As the years wear on, it will shrink. Accessions, therefore, the more frequent the better, must often be made if the stream of history is to flow deep and clear.

All the causes of the American Revolution are neither described

nor enumerated in the Declaration of Independence. Indeed its accusations are chiefly leveled at George the Third, the king actually on the throne. This appears to acquit of responsibility King James I, the later Stuart sovereigns, and the first two princes of the House of Hanover. However, it required no second sight to perceive in the reign of James the First the existence of trouble in a germinal form. When in 1619 the London Company granted to Virginians the right to elect to a House of Burgesses two members from each settlement, there was adopted a measure of which few clearly saw the consequences. The sharp eye of King James had dimly pierced the future, but even when his vision was assisted by his fears he did not foresee for a distant successor the woes that the years were to bring forth. He was displeased with the company, and, as is well known, that dislike served to shorten its career. It was the democracy of Sandys and of other members that gave birth to the misgivings of James.

Perhaps few assemblies less learned and less skillful than the first house of Burgesses are reported in the pages of history. But with practice in the management of their affairs came skill and with leisure came learning. The House of Burgesses soon lost its awkwardness, and in time its members acquired scholarship. In that political seminary were afterwards trained many of the world's greatest leaders in popular government. It was this experiment of the London Company that enabled England's colonists first to overtake and in a little while far to surpass in political acumen the colonists of Spain, of France, and of Holland. *Their* laws were made in Europe and were imposed upon them. British-Americans, and the term is used in its geographical sense, made their own laws. It is by doing things that we learn. Not by seeing others do them.

The establishment in Virginia of a colonial legislature led all the later settlements to regulate their affairs by an assembly of which one branch was chosen by the people. It was not long before these feeble assemblies were possessed of, or perhaps disturbed by, the elevated feelings of imperial parliaments. These were early manifested and they endured till George the Third acknowledged for himself and his successors the independence of the United States. Generally those assemblies were the jealous exponents of colonial opinion. It was, therefore, to be

expected that there would be frequent disagreements between local legislatures and the royal governors sent hither to represent some English sovereign. This aspect of the Revolution has been admirably treated by Reverend John A. Burns, O.S.A.,¹ and by Prof. Evarts Boutell Greene in *The Provincial Governor*. The works mentioned in the narratives of these authors will enable a student, by inquiries of his own, to confirm or to supplement their conclusions.

William Edward Hartpole Lecky, one of the ablest historians of our generation, concisely states, in his *History of England in the Eighteenth Century*, Chapter XII, the causes of the movement for American independence. Many of his judgments can be approved. If a reader does not have at hand the eight large volumes of Lecky, it may be possible for him to get Professor Woodburn's reprint of that chapter in a handy little book. Much research on this subject was included by John Fiske in Vol. I of *The American Revolution*. The point of view of an English liberal, and among England's leading thinkers that is the one that is coming to prevail, will be found in *The American Revolution*, by Sir George Otto Trevelyan. A useful study in American diplomatic history is the volume on *The Relation of Holland to the American Revolution*, by Dr. Edler. It was published with the Johns Hopkins University studies.

The colonists of Masachusetts Bay as well as the later authors of school histories of the United States appear to have been greatly shocked by the conduct of those redcoats who, in March, 1770, fired into a Boston crowd killing five and wounding half a dozen citizens. Yet, two years earlier, May 10, 1768, in the very year that British soldiers landed in Boston, a vast concourse of London folk went to St. George Fields to show their pleasure in the liberation from the King's Bench prison of John Wilkes, a champion of popular rights. They were fired into by several battalions of the foot-guards, who, though they shot fourteen persons, were thanked by Lord Barrington, the Secretary at War, and promised the protection and defense of his office. His Majesty, George the Third, seems to have *highly approved* the conduct of the guards and their officers.

¹ *Controversies between Royal Governors and Their Assemblies in the Northern American Colonies.*

This experience of London citizens, which antedated the Boston massacre, plainly shows that Englishmen did not then enjoy the right of assembly. The attitude of the ruling class toward petitions was not different. A study of the events of that era will show that in England a wide interval separated the common people from their rulers. This general feeling made it difficult for the king to raise armies in England, and the fact explains his application to the Empress of Russia for troops. The Czarina, however, informed His Majesty that her soldiers could not be employed to subdue his colonists. An application to Holland for the return of the Scotch Brigade, which had gone to the Low Countries generations before, but whose organization had been maintained, met with no better success. The troops of Holland, His Majesty was informed, could only be used to fight in Europe. Therefore was he driven to recruit his armies amongst Brunswickers, Waldeckers, and Hessians. From petty German states he secured the services of almost 30,000 trained soldiers. The Scots, who had been in rebellion in 1745, afterward prospered under royal favor and in this emergency proved more loyal than Englishmen themselves.

All the general histories of the decade preceding the Revolutionary War describe the political situation in England. The best treatment in a single work, however, of the intricate subject of the rival groups then shaping affairs in the British empire is *The Mississippi Valley in British Politics*, by Dr. Clarence Walworth Alvord, a work which was awarded the Loubat prize.

Not only children but oftentimes those who have left their childhood days far behind believe that the best way to learn the progress of the American Revolution is to memorize the accounts of marches, of battles, and of sieges. It may be that there are certain impressionable young minds that would regard this task but as a pleasant pastime. For those few favored folk no rule need be prescribed. Under any circumstances they will remember and digest facts. But this will not give them the relation of things. There are multitudes of children, however, who would learn more easily and would more readily understand this subject if it were presented as a whole. The details could afterward be learned, and without conscious effort on the part of the pupil, each would arrange itself upon the shelves of memory. The first thing to impress upon a pupil, therefore, is that a plan

runs through the whole and that it was while it was being followed out that armies met and fought.

The present writer has learned by experience that, for young as well as for advanced students, the following divisions of the revolutionary struggle, are not only the most natural but the most satisfactory. Perhaps it is a hackneyed observation to remark that the War for American Independence was likely to break out anywhere, but most likely in Massachusetts. In this view the skirmish at Lexington, April 19, 1775, was not a dislocation. Any complete account of that memorable event conducts the reader to Boston, where in fancy he sees a large, though ill-equipped and undisciplined army besieging the British forces. Leaving, for the moment, the opposing forces thus bestowed, the student would do well to consider:

I. The invasion of Canada, to which American commissioners offered peace and an opportunity to embark upon their venture, the defeat at Quebec, and the counter-invasion, which ended with the surrender of Burgoyne, October 17, 1777, at Saratoga. That victory led to the alliance with France. Thus ended the struggle for the possession of the Hudson.

II. Returning to the army around Boston, it is important to remember that it received on July 3, 1775, a commander-in-chief, who finally led it to victory. The expulsion, March 17, 1776, of the British from that city left Washington in doubt as to their destination. He divined their plans and led his troops to New York City, where in due time they arrived. For him that was the scene of many reverses.

III. The first thing to notice in the struggle for the Delaware is the defeat of the British at Trenton and Princeton, after they had in the preceding summer severely defeated the Americans at Long Island and driven them across New Jersey.

Another part of this campaign, however, was the defeat of Washington at Chadds Ford, Pa., by an army that had sailed south from New York. It occupied Philadelphia during the winter of 1777-'78, while the patriot army endured unusual hardships at Valley Forge. A rumor of the coming of a French fleet to the Delaware led the British to march to New York in the summer of 1778, when they were attacked at Monmouth Court House, N. J.

IV. While the events above named and many others were taking place, Colonel George Rogers Clark with a few Virginians surprised Kaskaskia, Illinois, and Cahokia. With French assistance he next took Vincennes. Those successes finally led to the winning of the northwest.

V. General Gates had schemed for and obtained command of the army that captured Burgoyne. That led Congress, against the advice of Washington, to give him the army in the Carolinas. He was severely defeated at Camden, S. C. The command then devolved upon General Greene, who reorganized the demoralized troops, won a few victories and fought many drawn battles against Cornwallis, who was finally forced into Virginia.

VI. The next subjects to consider are the movements of the armies and the fleets of France; Spain's war on England, which was marked by the victories of Galvez on the Gulf of Mexico; the friendship of the Dutch in the West Indies, and the neutrality of Frederick the Great, which partly stopped in Germany recruiting for English armies.

VII. Defeat of the British fleets at the Capes of the Chesapeake by Admiral de Grasse. The victorious ships prevented the escape of Cornwallis and brought the allied armies of Washington and Rochambeau down the Chesapeake to Yorktown. Surrender of Cornwallis, October 19, 1781, which ended the military phase of the war.

VIII. Diplomatic history of the Revolution.

IX. Finances of the Revolution. Loans of France, of Spain, and of Holland.

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METHODS OF SCORING ALTERNATIVE RESPONSE AND MULTIPLE CHOICE TESTS

The frequent occurrence in educational and intelligence tests of exercises involving the *right-minus-wrong* method of scoring has attracted considerable attention to the validity of this method and the usefulness of such tests. This type of exercise has been strongly recommended and widely used as a substitute for the conventional type of examination, and in view of the many favorable results obtained from the use of such exercises it is necessary that it be examined critically and improved, if possible. The multiple choice type of exercise has been employed in many tests. Ordinarily four or more answers are given from which the subject marks one as the correct response. The Stanford Achievement tests contain two exercises where but three choices are given. In this latter case a special method of scoring is employed, namely, subtracting one-half the number of the wrong answers from the number of correct answers. The purpose of this paper is to inquire into the validity of the right-minus-wrong method and to suggest a new method which has been employed with considerable success.

The value of exercises requiring alternative responses and particularly of synonym-antonym tests has been demonstrated by Jordan¹ who found that, of the many types of exercises included in advanced intelligence tests, "opposites" tests correlated with composites much higher than did most other types. Wood, Laird, Knight, Gates and others have reported the usefulness of tests requiring alternative responses in lieu of the conventional type of examination. The "true-false" type of test has gained favor rapidly and possesses a number of advantages that will undoubtedly commend it to many teachers. Among these advantages may be included the following:

1. Its objectivity is greater than that of the essay type of test.
2. Its reliability coefficient is in the vicinity of 0.90 in contrast

¹ Jordan, A. M.: "The Validation of Intelligence Tests." J. of Educ. Psychology, xiv, 1923, 348-366, 414-428.

with coefficients of 0.35 that have been reported for essay examinations.

3. It saves a large amount of time both in the administration of the test and in the scoring of the papers.

4. Through such a test the range of subject matter that can be covered within a brief period is much greater than is embraced in the ordinary examination. It contributes in this way to thoroughness.

5. In general students prefer it after they have become accustomed to it.

6. Differences in rate of writing are excluded and that *bête noire* of examinations, illegibility of writing, is obviated.

The method of scoring alternative response tests has generally been that of subtracting the number wrong from the number of correct answers. Underlying this method are certain assumptions which have been the subject of debate in recent months. If these assumptions are ill-founded this type of test is not suited to general use unless the method of scoring be changed. It is therefore necessary to examine these assumptions critically. Briefly stated, they are as follows:

1. That the student guesses on all items he does not know.
2. That the number of correct guesses is equal to the number of incorrect guesses.
3. That *all* wrong answers are guesses.

These assumptions may be considered separately.

1. In some tests the subjects are directed to guess if they are not sure. In other cases² they are instructed not to endanger their scores by gambling on questions about which they know nothing. This latter case is exceptional and the usual methods are either to encourage guessing or not to mention it at all in the instructions. There is little direct evidence on the tendency of students of any age to guess. It has been observed in a true-false exercise of a chemistry test that there was a strong tendency on the part of high school students to omit items that they were unable to answer.³ Undoubtedly, however, a very considerable amount of guessing does occur, but guessing is not precisely identical with chance marking. Students will frequently base

² Wood, Ben. D., "The Measurement of College Work." *Educ. Administration and Supervision*. vii, 1920, 301-334.

³ Rauth, J. W. and Foran, T. G., "The Rauth-Foran Chemistry Test I." *CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL REVIEW*, xxii, 1924, pp. 272-278.

their answers in such instances on "hunches" which are not strictly true guesses. Whatever the tendency to guess it, it probably exists in some amount but that it acts in every instance is not borne out by the existence of omitted items in large numbers.

2. The second assumption is much more important, namely, that the number of correct guesses is equal to the number of incorrect guesses. The analogy of guessing on such tests and the incidence of chance results has been cited frequently. McCall,⁴ among others, has stated that the chances are one to one that the number of responses guessed correctly will equal the number of responses guessed incorrectly. It has been pointed out and may be easily verified that in such cases the chances of an even break are not equal and the famous coin-tossing experiment has suffered severely from criticism. It need hardly be remarked that coin-tossing and guessing are very different activities.

Theoretically, when nothing is known about the subject-matter and the pupil merely makes random marks, the average score will be zero. Asker has shown that there is a very small chance of a passing grade being obtained through mere guessing.⁵ But West has demonstrated that while the average (1.035) closely approximates the theoretical zero, there was a standard deviation of 7.34.⁶ While the chances that a pupil will obtain a zero score are much greater than that he will obtain any other specific score, they are small compared with the chances that he will *not* obtain *some other* score. Consequently, the general average of a group may be sufficiently reliable and conformative to probability but many cases will be included where significant scores have been obtained in some way.

West in his experiment used a hard synonym-antonym test with a group of students who were instructed to guess on all items that they did not know but to indicate such guesses. The true scores were compared with the obtained scores (right-minus-wrong method), and it was observed that the average true score was 5.12 items higher than the obtained score. The number

⁴ McCall, Wm. A., "How to Measure in Education." New York, 1922, pp. 119-133.

⁵ Asker, Wm., "The Reliability of Tests Requiring Alternative Responses." J. of Educ. Research, 1924, ix, 234-240.

⁶ West, Paul V., "A Critical Study of the Right-Minus-Wrong Method." J. of Educ. Research, 1923, viii, 1-9.

guessed correctly was approximately two points greater than the number guessed wrongly, illustrating the point referred to previously and recognized by West, as an indication of the working of some unconscious guide or "hunch." He concludes that the right-minus-wrong method unduly penalizes the subjects as a group, due to the fact that they made approximately as many errors on the items not guessed as in those guessed.

Employing West's data and substituting a method of scoring whereby the score is the number of correct responses minus half the incorrect responses, an average score is obtained which reduces the error by more than 50 per cent. His averages were as follows:

No. right.....	35.56	
No. wrong.....	14.49	
Rights — wrongs	21.07	
True score.....	26.19	
Difference		5.12
True score.....	26.19	
Rights — $\frac{1}{2}$ wrongs.....	28.31	
Difference		2.12

In order to test this new method (rights — $\frac{1}{2}$ wrongs) a synonym-antonym test was prepared consisting of 50 pairs of words. It was given to 90 college students with the following instructions:

If the two words of a pair mean the same or nearly the same, write "S" between them; if they do not mean the same, write "D" between them. If you are not sure or don't know, guess. When you guess draw a circle around the "S" or the "D." Answer all items.

An opportunity was given to all subjects to complete the test. The tests were scored by means of a key and the following data obtained for each paper: The number right, the number wrong, the number guessed right, and the number guessed wrong. By means of these figures three scores were obtained, namely, the right-wrong score, the true score, i.e., the number right minus the number guessed right, and the new score or the number right minus half the number wrong. Since general averages obscure individual injustices, the scores have been grouped in series of ten, the grouping being made on the basis of the order

in which the tests were handed in. Table 1 shows the scores according to the groups and the average of all the groups.

TABLE 1

Group	Right	Wrong	<i>R-W</i>	True <i>S</i>	New <i>S</i>
A.....	40.0	9.9	30.1	35.4	35.05
B.....	37.6	12.4	25.2	31.5	31.60
C.....	37.1	12.8	24.3	32.3	30.70
D.....	37.3	12.3	25.0	33.1	31.15
E.....	38.2	11.8	26.4	31.7	32.20
F.....	37.8	12.0	25.8	31.8	31.75
G.....	39.8	10.2	29.6	34.5	34.70
H.....	39.9	10.1	29.8	34.1	34.85
I.....	38.6	10.5	28.1	33.5	33.35
Average.....	38.48	11.33	27.15	33.13	32.82

The average differences in the scores according to the three methods of scoring are as follows:

True score and new score.....	2.67
True score and <i>R-W</i>	6.38
New score and <i>R-W</i>	5.64

In 71 cases or 78.89 per cent of the subjects the error between the true score and the right minus wrong method was greater than the error between the true score and the new method. In the latter case the greatest error was 7 while in the former instance errors of 11 were not rare. The very close approximation of the new scores to the true scores is evident in the case of all the groups and in no instance in Table 1 is the score according to the usual method nearer the true score than the score according to the new method. Regarded from any point of view, it appears that the method of subtracting one-half the number of the wrong answers from the number of the correct answers is superior to the right minus wrong procedure.

3. The third assumption underlying the dominant method of scoring is that all wrong answers are guesses. This is amply contradicted by the data reported by West and the information derived from this experiment. In both studies the wrong answers are approximately evenly divided between those stated as guessed wrong and those answered incorrectly through lack of knowledge. These figures are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2

Group	Guessed wrong	Wrong but not guessed
West's subjects:		
Men.....	7.85	7.12
Women.....	6.73	7.12
Total.....	7.37	7.12
Present study:		
Group A.....	4.6	5.3
B.....	4.5	7.9
C.....	5.7	7.1
D.....	6.6	5.7
E.....	6.8	5.0
F.....	5.5	6.5
G.....	5.4	4.8
H.....	5.2	4.9
I.....	5.0	5.5
Average.....	5.48	5.85

It appears, therefore, that none of the assumptions underlying the right-minus-wrong method of scoring can be substantiated. The new method, on the other hand, involves no such assumptions. It does suppose that as has been demonstrated the incorrect answers are distributed about evenly between guesses and mistakes due to lack of comprehension. The new score approximates the true score in proportion to the equality of this distribution but in any case the new method yields scores whose error is on the average less than 50 per cent of the error involved in the right minus wrong method.

Attention has been called to the use of this $R - \frac{1}{2}W$ method in the Stanford Achievement tests involving three possible answers. On a *priori* grounds it can hardly be expected that this method, if suited to alternative response tests, is also applicable to multiple choice tests. For the purpose of testing its validity in such exercises as those contained in the Stanford tests, a difficult geography test containing fifty questions was given to a small group. Three names were given as answers to each question and the subjects instructed to underline the correct answer. If they did not know or were not sure, they were told to guess and to indicate such guesses by drawing a circle around the number of the question. The number right, the number wrong, the number guessed right and guessed wrong were found, and

from this data the true score (number right minus number guessed right) and the Stanford score (number right minus half the number wrong) were obtained. The results are reported for groups of ten. Table 3 includes the above data with an added column containing the number of correct answers minus the number wrong divided by four.

TABLE 3

Group	Rights	Wrongs	$R - \frac{1}{2}W$	True S	$R - \frac{1}{4}W$
A.....	33.4	16.4	25.2	27.3	29.3
B.....	31.8	18.2	22.7	30.5	27.25
C.....	38.9	16.1	30.85	34.5	34.9
D.....	34.7	15.3	27.45	31.3	30.88
E.....	30.0	20.0	20.0	25.8	25.0
Average.....	33.76	17.24	25.24	29.88	29.47

Owing to the small number of cases (50) involved in this phase of the experiment, no very definite conclusions can be drawn. It would appear, however, that the method employed by the authors of the Stanford Achievement tests of obtaining the score in exercises where there are three items to be selected from tends to a lowering of the scores. Some extreme examples might be cited. It may be that a more advantageous method would be to divide the number of wrong answers by four and subtract from the number of correct answers. Further investigation of this problem is needed. From the results in Table 3 and from the apparent adaptation of the "rights minus half the wrongs" method to alternative response tests, the validity of the Stanford method of scoring may be seriously questioned.

SUMMARY

1. The importance of alternative response tests demands a critical study of the methods of scoring involved.
2. The assumptions underlying the right-minus-wrong method cannot be substantiated.
3. A method is proposed and results of its experimental use reported whereby the score on alternative response tests is the number of correct items minus one-half the number of incorrect items.
4. From the results available the new method appears superior to the usual method.

5. The $R - \frac{1}{2} W$ method applied to triple choice questions is shown to be of doubtful validity according to the results from a preliminary experiment.

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MODERN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IN AMERICAN COLLEGES: 1779-1800

II

But let us see what effect the establishment of the first Department of Modern Languages in 1779 had upon the other leading institutions of learning of the time. Apparently there were no immediate results, for five years elapsed before further recognition was extended to the modern languages. In 1784, immediately after the reorganization of King's College as Columbia College, we find the second department officially established.¹⁹ In the same year, a provision was made by Hampden-Sidney College in Virginia to secure a French Master,²⁰ while in 1787, Harvard appointed its first official instructor of French,²¹ and Franklin College, later known as Franklin and Marshall, provided for the teaching of German as part of the regular curriculum.²² Before the close of the eighteenth century modern languages were further recognized by Transylvania College, Kentucky, 1794,²³ Williams College, Mass., in 1795,²⁴ and Washington Academy, Virginia, in 1799.²⁵ We can say, therefore, that by 1800, French, German, Spanish, and Italian had become a part of the curriculum in eight institutions, a number not to be underestimated, considering that at the time there were only

¹⁹*History of Columbia University, 1754-1904*, 61.

²⁰*Calendar of Board Minutes of Hampden-Sidney College, 1784*.

²¹Faculty Records, 1787. Prof. C. H. Handchin in his study, "The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States," says that French became a regular branch of instruction in 1780, the instructor being Simon Poullin. It appears, however, that this position was the same as that of the previous unofficial tutors, since he was not considered a member of the faculty nor was he paid by the college. The courses given were optional, and the fee was paid quarterly by the students. In an earlier study by Prof. John A. Walz, "An Historical Sketch of the Study of Modern Languages at American Colleges," *Western Reserve University Bulletin*, October, 1900, he states that Simon Toullin (apparently a misreading of Poullin) was authorized by the corporation "To teach the French Language to such students as their parents or guardians should permit, the tuition fees to be charged in their quarterly bill." (Pp. 165-166.)

²²*College Records, 1787*.

²³*Minutes of the Executive Committee of the Board of Trustees*, October 6, 1798.

²⁴*Faculty Minutes, 1795*.

²⁵*Records of Washington Academy, 1799*.

thirty colleges in the country. Perhaps the statement that these languages had become a part of the curriculum is slightly ambiguous, but if we consider the appointment of a regular tutor, instructor, or professor as part of the faculty to be an official recognition, the statement is correct, for the dates given above are those at which the first appointment of regular instructors or professors to teach the various languages took place.

To appreciate the importance of the above figures it is necessary to bear in mind that during the eighteenth century the whole system of education in this country was still under the direct influence of classicism, and that any attempt to vary the fixed and established order of things was met with determined resistance. Greek, Hebrew, and Latin were the three recognized *tyrants* in the realm of language study and held unrestricted sway. The theory of mental discipline was strictly adhered to and the study of these languages was thought to be of inestimable value in providing just such a discipline. The modern languages, as we have seen, were first taught by private tutors, employed and paid by the students who desired to learn them, but they were not considered even fit subjects for college entrance credit, and thus naturally even less worthy of being studied in college itself.

It is only when we consider these facts that the significance of the organization of the first department of modern languages becomes apparent. It marks the beginning of our modern school system; for it is the first deliberate step towards broadening our college curriculum, and as such the first official protest against classicism. The distinctive feature of our present system, as President Angell, of Yale, recently said, is a curriculum "more varied in content and with its more characteristic change found in the elimination of Hebrew and Greek as requirements, a great reduction of Latin, the practical elimination of philosophical studies as obligatory, and a vast expansion of the modern languages and literatures."²⁶

Having traced in some detail the early and unofficial teaching of modern languages and established their first official recognition prior to 1800, let us now look into the second main ques-

²⁶*Yale Alumni Weekly*, xxxiii 24, p. 654.

tion. Who were the first teachers to give official instruction in the different institutions? Heretofore very little has been ascertained regarding these men. In the following biographical sketches, the writer has gathered all the information he has been able to find. Thus it is hoped that interest in the lives of these early teachers will be aroused and that others will try to gather such information regarding them as may come to their notice before it is entirely lost. In one or two instances not even the name of the first official instructor is known, the faculty minutes and other records giving very meager information, and merely stating in some cases that a provision for such an appointment was made without naming the appointee.

Immediately upon the reorganization of the College of William and Mary in 1779, and at the personal recommendation of Jefferson, Signor Carlo Bellini was appointed professor of Modern Languages to give instruction in French, Spanish, Italian, and German. He came to this country in 1773,²⁷ in company with Signor Mazzei, together with a group of Italians especially invited for the purpose of introducing vine culture. This incident has been the source of an erroneous conception regarding Signor Bellini. It has given rise to the opinion that he was a mere vine grower, and that he came with the other agriculturists whom Mazzei brought to this country has been cited as proof of this statement. It is true that he came with Mazzei, but it can also safely be asserted that he was far superior to his companions in scholarly attainments, for Jefferson would not have recommended a mere vine grower to fill the newly established professorship of modern languages. Jefferson thought too highly of this old institution to have recommended anyone not fully qualified to fill such a position. There is no reason why he should have singled out Bellini from any of his companions had they all been alike in point of education. In 1782 we find

²⁷ Tyler, Lyon G., *Early Courses and Professors at William and Mary*, 7. This date is generally recognized. Mazzei came to this country that year and there is hardly any doubt that Bellini came with him. In a *Memoria*, dated March 22, 1805, sent to Jefferson by Mr. Appleton, our representative in the Leghorn, inquiry is made concerning Bellini, and it is stated that he "left this country nearly forty years ago." This would place the date of his departure for the United States in 1765, but, of course, he may have left Florence at that time and tarried in other parts of Europe.

Bellini in correspondence with Jefferson, then in Europe, and in his letter he discusses, at some length, the value of an Italian translation of a certain Greek book.²⁸ The letter written in Italian shows that he possessed a scholarly command of his native tongue. While Jefferson was in Paris, one of the first letters he wrote was to Signor Bellini. In this letter²⁹ he discusses in detail the society of Europe as he finds it and compares it to the simple social structure of young America, giving Bellini his impressions and reactions to the new surroundings. Surely Jefferson would not have written him such a letter had he considered him a mere vine grower. In a letter to Bellini dated in Paris, July 25, 1788, he says: "You are too wise to feel an interest in the squabbles in which the pride, the dissipations, and the tyranny of kings keep this hemisphere constantly embroiled. Science, indeed, finds some aliment here and you are one of its sons."³⁰ It seems also that Bellini gave up a government position in the treasury to come to America. From all these facts it is natural to deduce that he was a gentleman of scholarly attainments whose true worth Jefferson was not slow to recognize.

He was a native of Florence, the son of Leon Girolamo Bellini, of noble descent. He was born about 1740 and had two sisters, Aurora and Luisa, the first born in 1742 and the second born in 1743.³¹ From all indications, the family was tolerably prosperous, and Carlo was given a good education. He seems to have enjoyed the respect and good will of his countrymen and of all those who came into contact with him. Just why he decided to come to America is not clear, but apparently he was a very intimate friend of Signor Mazzei,³² an enterprising man of considerable ability and a great friend of Jefferson. There is little doubt that it was as the result of their mutual connections that young Bellini was induced to come to America to try his fortune. Upon his arrival here he settled in the county

²⁸ Bellini to Jefferson, April 8, 1782, in *William and Mary College Quarterly*, Second Series, V. No. 1.

²⁹ Randall, H. S., *Life of Thomas Jefferson*, 1, 433-434.

³⁰ Jefferson to Bellini, July 25, 1788, in *William and Mary College Quarterly*, Second Series, V. No. 1.

³¹ *Ibid.*, Jefferson to Saunders, December 15, 1815.

³² *Ibid.*, Correspondence between Jefferson and Bellini, 1785-1788.

of Albemarle, and two years later, in 1775, upon the outbreak of the Revolution, he immediately threw himself into the struggle with characteristic Latin enthusiasm, serving for a short time in the Albemarle Guards. Upon his appointment as professor of William and Mary in 1779, he immediately repaired to Williamsburg and took charge of his new position. It is certain that he taught French, Spanish, and Italian, while some claim that he also gave instruction in German.³³ If he did, he anticipated the teaching of this language at Harvard by almost fifty years. The writer has been unable to find any conclusive evidence as to whether he actually gave instruction in German. His work at the college was successful, for we find him holding his position without intermission until the time of his death in 1803.

It seems that the home life of Signor Bellini was far from happy. His wife was an invalid for almost thirty years, but she appears to have borne her suffering with patience. Jefferson was a close friend of Mrs. Bellini, and in all his letters he asks to be remembered to her. He seems to have had a deep admiration for the Christian patience which she exhibited in her sufferings. After a long and painful illness she died in Williamsburg in 1798.³⁴ A year later, Bellini, who was now growing old and beginning to feel the infirmities of age, writes to Jefferson: "I have been waiting for some time with more than Christian patience to write you a letter; but the stiffness of my hands which has hitherto prevented me, increasing continually in obstinacy and my days drawing happily to a close, I have been forced at length to make use of a younger and more obedient hand."³⁵ It seems that he felt his approaching end, yet he was resigned. For some time he had been gradually losing his eyesight. In 1786 he asked his friend Mazzei, then in Paris, for a pair of glasses. In 1788, Jefferson, upon hearing of the affliction of his friend, sent him three or four pairs "adjusted for different periods of life" in order that he might use them as the need arose, and he adds with characteristic kindness:

³³ Tyler, Lyon G., *Early Courses and Professors at William and Mary*, 7.

³⁴ Bellini to Jefferson, April 5, 1799, in *William and Mary College Quarterly*, Second Series, V. No. 1.

³⁵ *Ibid.*

"You see I am looking forward in hope of a long life for you, and that it may be long enough to carry you through the whole succession of glasses."³⁶ He sent these glasses in a box of books addressed to Mr. Wythe, which unfortunately was delayed almost a year in transit.

It seems that Bellini became dissatisfied with his position at the college and asked Jefferson to keep him in mind should anything better offer itself, for in 1790,³⁷ upon the return of Jefferson from Europe, he writes Bellini from New York saying that he has found in his office one chief clerk and two assistants as well as a translator, but that they are all old employees, that the salary is low, and the work is heavy. He adds that he has had no opportunity to make a new appointment, but he promises to keep him in mind. Probably the remuneration at the college was rather low and, with the continued and prolonged illness of his wife, he desired a change. During his long stay in Williamsburg he acquired very little property, for in 1816,³⁸ when his estate was finally settled by Mr. Robert Saunders, it netted a total sum of only \$635.48.

After the death of his wife, he wrote to Jefferson and, in offering him a valued picture of his life partner, says: "Have the honor to accept the picture of my poor wife and your sincerely affectionate friend who was last year kindly delivered from a miserable existence." This picture must have had artistic value, for in the course of the letter he adds that "the value of the workmanship . . . no one in this country except yourself can justly appreciate." Jefferson was deeply moved by the offering, and in his reply refused to accept the picture during the lifetime of Bellini, saying that he should keep it and will it to him at the time of his death should he so desire.

Bellini had a very high opinion of Jefferson and often refers to him as a philosopher. In the letter in which he offers him the picture of his wife he also says: "Our poor village affords nothing worthy of the ear of a philosopher. William and Mary, the most important object here, has long been in a declining state, but I am happy to inform you (and I know that it will

³⁶ *Ibid.*, July 25, 1788.

³⁷ *Ibid.*, June 12, 1790.

³⁸ *Ibid.*, March 2, 1816.

give you a pleasure to hear) that it is at present rising very rapidly." This was in 1799. Four years later he died³⁹ without leaving a will. Shortly before his death he purchased two slaves from the college, but he had not paid for them in full at the time of his death. In the final settlement of his estate, Mr. Saunders remarks that the college treasurer had taken most of the furniture of Bellini as the balance due on the slaves.

He was survived by his two sisters, Aurora and Luisa, the latter being married to Giovan Batista Fancelli, of Florence. Aurora died on March 7, 1808, being sixty-six years old, while Luisa lived until March 13, 1811.⁴⁰ Upon her death, she made a will in favor of her husband, who later collected the balance of Bellini's estate through Jefferson's good services, who employed Mr. Robert Saunders for the purpose.

Having briefly summarized the life of the first instructor of modern languages, let us turn to a consideration of other pioneers in this field.

At the first regular meeting of the Regents of the newly re-organized College of Columbia held on May 5, 1784, "The Rev. John Peter Tetard, who had taught a French school in New York before the Revolution and had been by appointment of the New York Provincial Congress in 1775 French Interpreter to General Schuyler and Chaplain for the troops of this colony, was elected professor of the French language."⁴¹ This brief extract from the minutes, which is rather full, gives much information regarding the newly elected professor. Hardly any additional facts have been found concerning him by the writer. He appears to have been of French extraction, a man of culture and refinement, and one thoroughly familiar with the language. The fact that he had conducted a French school and had been interpreter for General Schuyler attests his proficiency in the language. Just how long he held his position is not definitely

³⁹ It is generally believed that he died in 1803, but in the *Memoria* drawn up by the Governor of Florence in behalf of Bellini's sisters, and transmitted by Mr. Appleton, Consul at Leghorn, it is stated that Bellini died June, 1804; this, of course, may be an error.

⁴⁰ Certificates transmitted by Jefferson to Mr. Saunders, regarding Bellini's heirs, December 15, 1815, in *William and Mary College Quarterly*, Second Series, V. No. 1.

⁴¹ *History of Columbia University, 1754-1904*, 61.

known, although it seems that he had left the college by 1792, for in June of that year, a committee of the trustees appointed in the preceding April "to see what additional professorships are wanting in the college and what salaries can be allowed for their support,"⁴² reported, among other things, that a professor of the French language be appointed at a salary of £100. Apparently Rev. Tetard was not connected with the school at the time or there would have been no need for such a recommendation. In discussing the report, it was agreed that the professor of French should "teach such of the students of the college as choose to be instructed in that language" at such times as might be agreed upon by a board, consisting of the president and professors, and the fee for each student to be forty shillings.⁴³

In accordance with the resolution, on July 9, 1792, at a meeting of the trustees, Mr. Antoine Vilette de Marcellin was elected professor of the French language. All search regarding the life of Mr. Marcellin previous to his appointment has been fruitless, but if we may judge from his name he also must have been of French descent. The new appointee must have filled his position satisfactorily, for two years later, in July, 1794, Professor Mitchill, reporting in behalf of a committee appointed for the purpose on "the present state of Learning in the College, collected from written statements handed in by the Professors," commented favorably on the teaching of French. In this report, which is rather full and detailed in many instances, the different courses given at that time are described, and the following specific statement regarding the teaching of French is made: "The Professorship of the French Tongue is held by Antoine Vilette Marcellin. His courses, though particularly intended for the College students, are open to other persons." In a pamphlet published later, based on the report made by the committee, the following lengthy but interesting paragraph concerning the teaching of French is inserted:

The Professorship of the French tongue is held by Antoine Vilette Marcellin. A good pronunciation being very essential in every living language, the beginners are particularly instructed in this; and when this is sufficiently acquired, the students are

⁴² *Ibid.*, 75.

⁴³ *Ibid.*, 76.

gradually made acquainted with the different parts of speech, which are explained to them in a clear and concise manner, by the aid of the best grammars, founded on decisions of the French Academy. These things being understood, they are put to the exercises corresponding to the rules they have learned, and translate, in the meantime, the French books best adapted to their proficiency and capacities, into English. When they become capable of rendering them with ease and elegance, and have acquired a due knowledge of the rules of French syntax, they are taught an easy phraseology, and made to translate English into French with propriety, particularly passages of the best English authors. They are then made acquainted with the best French authors, both in verse and prose.⁴⁴

Judging from the above description of the instruction given by Mr. Marcellin, we must admit that he pursued a thorough method, and that he must have been well acquainted with the language. How long he remained at Columbia has not been definitely established, but it seems that he was still filling his position satisfactorily as late as 1800.

It seems that in 1784, the same year that Rev. John Peter Tetard was elected professor of the French language, Rev. John D. Gross was also elected professor of geography and German.⁴⁵ Just how much time he devoted to each subject is not clear, but in 1787, three years later, we find that when the new trustees met on May 8 they found that there were "in the Faculty of Arts three Professors: Mr. Cochran, Greek and Latin Languages; Dr. Kemp, Mathematics; Rev. Dr. Gross, Geography and German."⁴⁶ We must necessarily conclude from this entry that instruction in German was being given at Columbia College contemporary with French and that the earliest official teaching of German was not done at Harvard, as has heretofore been thought, but at Columbia.

Dr. Gross was an exceptional man in many ways. He appears to have been of German descent, and he was very likely educated on the continent. The author of the History of Columbia University, speaking about him, says:

The Rev. Dr. John Daniel Gross, Professor of German and Geography from 1784 to 1795, taught the Sophomore Class three

⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, 77-80.

⁴⁵ *Ibid.*, 64.

⁴⁶ *Ibid.*, 69.

times a week, in a course which was characterized as a "Description of the Globe in respect of all general matters. Rise, extent, and fall of ancient empires; chronology as low as the fall of the Roman Empire; present state of the world; origin of the present States and Kingdoms—their extent, power, commerce, religion, and customs; modern chronology, etc. . . ." It savors, however, more of German than of English origin. John Gross, Professor of German and Geography and later of Moral Philosophy, evidently represents a European current in American College Instruction.⁴⁷

Unfortunately the writer has not been able to find a similar detailed description of his German instruction, but if the courses given in that language were as full and comprehensive as the study of history, it may well be asserted that it must have exercised a decided and lasting influence. If this is true, it is strange that in 1814 George Ticknor should have been unable to find "in Cambridge, Massachusetts, neither a good teacher of German, nor a dictionary, nor even a German book either in town or College."⁴⁸

During the same year that Columbia College appointed the Rev. John Peter Tetard professor of the French language, the Board of Hampden-Sidney College passed a resolution providing that there should be "in the College at present besides the President and tutor of the Junior and Sophomore classes, one French master, and one English master."⁴⁹ There is no name in the records to show who was appointed, but it is evident from an entry made in 1785 that French was being taught, for we find that in September of that year it was "resolved that when any of the students of this College shall upon examination appear to be as well acquainted with the French language as it is usual to expect that candidate for literary degrees should be acquainted with Greek, such students passing the usual examination in other branches of science shall be admitted to a degree without being acquainted with Greek."⁵⁰ This is one of the first instances where a modern language was substituted for the established Greek. The policy apparently had a bad effect on the students, for the authorities grew dubious of the

⁴⁷ *Ibid.*, 69-75.

⁴⁸ Tyler, Lyon G., *Early Courses and Professors at William and Mary*, 7.

⁴⁹ *Calendar of Board Minutes of Hampden-Sidney*, 1784.

⁵⁰ *Idem.*

real value of the substitution, and it was found "to produce an unfavorable effect upon the students with respect to their improvement in science."⁵¹ The former resolution was, therefore, rescinded.

After this incident, apparently, the modern languages were not resumed at Hampden-Sidney until well after the beginning of the nineteenth century. In the diary of the Rev. J. D. Paxton, writing at the college, there appears, however, the following entry made on June 11, 1810: "Have begun the Hebrew and French languages, with a view to acquiring such knowledge of them as may enable me to read quotations and examine criticisms." This cannot be taken as an indication that instruction in these two languages was being given at the time; for, in fact, in the reorganized curriculum of 1812, there is no mention of French or any other modern language. By 1826, however, Col. Louis Gasperi⁵² was offering instruction in French, Italian, and Spanish at the college. It seems that he remained for a year. Nothing has been found relating to the life of Mr. Gasperi, but from his name he must have been of Italian descent.

The first regularly appointed instructor at Harvard was Joseph Nancrede, who became a member of the faculty in 1787, just three years after the introduction of French at Hampden-Sidney. He was born in France in 1760 and came to this country during the American Revolution in company with Rochambeau. In the French contingent he had the rank of lieutenant, and he took an active part in the Yorktown campaign that terminated with the surrender of Cornwallis.⁵³ He was wounded during one of the assaults upon the city. M. Nancrede was a man of no mean ability, for in 1789 he became the editor of the first French newspaper published in Boston.⁵⁴ This paper had a short existence. Its first issue made its appearance on April 23, and the last number appeared on October 15. The different numbers were published weekly.⁵⁵ The editorship of this paper was not the only literary venture of M. Nancrede, for in 1792 he published a small volume entitled

⁵¹ *Idem.*

⁵² *College Catalogue*, 1827.

⁵³ *Appleton's Cyclopedia of American Biography.*

⁵⁴ *Proceedings of the Colonial Society of Mass.*, Vol. XXIV.

⁵⁵ *Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society*, Vol. 25, 208-209

"L'Abeille Françoise," in which are included a number of extracts from French authors. The little book was used as a text in Harvard for several years.⁵⁶

He left the college in 1800, and it seems that for a time he kept a bookstore in Boston. At any rate, there is an undated catalog in the college which reads as follows:

Fixed-Price-Catalogue of a large collection of books, which has for several years past been accumulating every production of merit in the English language; and is now grown into as valuable and rare a variety in the useful, ornamental, and classical branches of science and literature as was ever offered for sale in America. Now selling at reduced prices, by Joseph Nancrede, No. 24 State Street, Boston.

He must have removed to Philadelphia shortly after his retirement from the college. He had two sons, Joseph Guérard and Nicholas, both of whom became doctors in Philadelphia. Joseph Guérard was educated in Montreal and later in Paris, but he returned to this country to avoid conscription. In 1813 he was graduated in medicine at the University of Pennsylvania. He was a frequent contributor to current professional literature and edited several scientific works. M. Nancrede returned to France in his old age and died in Paris in 1841. The exact date of his departure for Europe has not been ascertained.

In the first faculty of Franklin College, that of 1787, there appears the name of Rev. Frederick Valentine Melsheimer, as professor of Greek, Latin, and German and principal of the German Department. It must be borne in mind that in this section of the country, a large percentage of the population was almost of pure German extraction, and therefore German was taught from the very beginning. Rev. Melsheimer was of German descent. He was born in Regenborn, Brunswick, Germany, September 29, 1749. He received a liberal education at Helmstaedt and came to the new world in 1776 as chaplain of German troops. He landed in Quebec on June 1 and three years later accepted a call as pastor for five Lutheran congregations in Dauphin County, Pennsylvania. In this capacity he served them as a licensed preacher until 1784, when he removed to

⁵⁶ M. Nancrede wrote a letter to the president and fellows in regard to the publication of this book, which is preserved in the Harvard Archives.

Man-heim, Lancaster County, and there he was ordained to the ministry by the Lutheran ministerium of Pennsylvania. Two years later he was pastor at New Holland, and, while discharging the duties of his position, he became instructor in Franklin College in 1787. It seems that he filled this new position until 1790, when he removed to Hanover, York County, where he became pastor, remaining there until 1814, the date of his death.

Rev. Melsheimer was one of the earliest scientific investigators in this country, having been the first local entomologist to make careful investigations in regard to the insects found in this section. Thomas Say and other scientists frequently refer to the services which he rendered in this department. He published a number of books, among which are "Wahrheit der Christlichen Religion, mit Beantwortung Deistischer Einwurfe," "Gespraeche Zwischen Einen Protestanten und Romischen Priester,"⁵⁷ and "Catalogue of the Insects of Pennsylvania."⁵⁸ All of these give evidence of the varied activities and interests of Rev. Melsheimer. He died in Hanover, July 4, 1814.⁵⁹

Although German was taught from the very beginning, it was not until almost the close of the nineteenth century that Franklin and Marshall College recognized and introduced the other modern languages. The first official course in French was offered in 1894, while Italian was first taught in 1900, and Spanish did not become a part of its curriculum until 1915.

Little or no information has been found concerning the life and work of M. Peter Lafillard, the first instructor of French at Transylvania College, who was appointed in 1794. His name seems to imply that he was of French origin, and his work at the college must have been satisfactory, for he was still filling the position of instructor as late as 1798.⁶⁰ The old seminary was changed to a university that year, and M. Lafillard was retained in his position. How much longer he served or when he died has not been ascertained.

In 1795, Williams College appointed Mr. Samuel Mackay professor of the French language. Mr. Mackay was born in

⁵⁷ Published in Hanover, 1797.

⁵⁸ *Idem.*, 1806.

⁵⁹ Appleton's Cyclopedia of American Biography, New York, 1808.

⁶⁰ Catalogue of Transylvania University, 1823.

the town of Chambyly, Canada, in 1764. He was of French extraction, and French had been the language of his home. During his lifetime he acquired some reputation both as a teacher and as a historian. It seems, however, that his deportment was wanting in dignity. Just in what respect this was true, it is difficult to determine, as the minutes of the college read that he is "said to be wanting in dignity of deportment," but this gives no further details. Be that as it may, Mr. Mackay wrote and published a book entitled "Campaigns of the Armies of France in Prussia, Saxony and Poland." The book came out in 1808. The following year he translated Warin's "The Magdalen Churchyard," which was published by Hastings, Etheridge and Bliss, at No. 8 State Street, Boston, in 1809.

In 1799 Mr. Mackay left his position as professor of the French language. The cause for this is not known. He must have lived in Boston for several years, since it was there that his two books were published. Although no definite information concerning other books written or translated by him has been found, it can safely be assumed that if he succeeded in giving to the press two books in two years, he must have indulged in further literary activity. He lived to a fairly ripe old age and died in the town of Sullivan, Maine, in 1831.

No information concerning the first instructor of modern languages at the old Washington Academy, now Washington and Lee University, has been found. There is no doubt that from 1799 on, French was regularly taught, as it is expressly stated in a report made that year concerning the different departments of the college that the Department of Modern Languages is the third and that "either Hebrew or French" may be substituted for Greek. But there is no mention made regarding the person who gave such instruction. It is not until 1811 that the name of the French instructor is noted in the records.

In the preceding paragraphs the writer has attempted to give a rough sketch of the lives and work of the first regularly appointed teachers of modern languages in this country. It is evident, from the facts set forth, that there is very little known about these men. It is one of the hopes of the writer that

the present incomplete and bare outline of their lives may stimulate others to secure further information.

We have seen how the modern languages were at first taught unofficially for a period of more than fifty years, then how they were slowly and distrustfully admitted as part of the curriculum of the several colleges, and lastly, we have traced imperfectly the lives of the pioneers in language instruction. It was the purpose of the writer to have given a detailed account of the courses offered by these early teachers in the respective languages taught, but the material at hand and the limits of the present paper do not permit it.

Let it not be forgotten that even after the modern languages were officially recognized, the various modern language departments functioned only intermittently. Practically in every instance there was a reaction, and for a time the modern languages were practically abandoned by the very colleges that were the first to recognize them. In some instances the interest in one language diminished while that in another increased, but immediately following the opening of the nineteenth century it can safely be asserted that, with very few exceptions, modern languages suffered a period of decline during which interest lagged and almost died out. The present schools of modern languages may be said to date from the latter half of the nineteenth century. The two languages that were more consistently taught throughout the country until the late seventies were French and German. The material for a detailed account of modern language instruction during the nineteenth century is easily available, but that for its early beginnings is fast disappearing, and should be collected before it is too late.

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CLASSICAL SECTION

This section aims first of all to act as a bureau of information for teachers of the Classics, particularly those of Catholic schools. Questions sent to me will be answered in these columns or by personal letter, or they will be turned over to persons fully qualified to give them proper consideration. It aims also to keep its readers informed of the most important movements and events in the world of the Classics, especially such as have bearing on the teaching of Latin and Greek in secondary school.

Notes on Ecclesiastical Latin (Continued)

VI. Change of Meaning

The words which have been examined thus far were interesting for their composition or derivation. Old words combined with a prefix or suffix, or combinations of two or more words, resulted in an extensive new vocabulary to enrich the old. Many of the old words, however, did not change at all in form but took on new meanings, often to the exclusion of older significations.

Most languages are not spoken with isolated words, each word having but one sense and idea, but words form parts of ideas, just as roots form parts of words. Just as prefixes and suffixes alter the real and primitive sense of the root, so the real and primitive sense of a word is modified by the other words with which it is united in a thought unit. Thus many and diverse meanings may develop in a word, and it is due to this phenomenon that the human race is able to express so many thoughts in languages which possess a comparatively limited number of terms.

The use of figures of speech is probably the chief factor in the development of new meanings of words. To mention only the principal ones, metonymy and especially metaphor, by reason of an approximate resemblance, transport a term of the physical order to the moral order and enrich it with a new idea. Gradually this new sense in many instances preponderates over all other meanings. Hyperbole exaggerates, but with many of these exaggerated expressions there is gradually associated the idea of the actual truth, and thus the hyperbole is weakened and it is no longer appreciated as such. In expressions of euphemism,

the speaker states less than he actually means and makes known, and to the attenuated form of expression is gradually associated the actual meaning; the weaker meaning becomes stronger.

Besides these psychological reasons for the change of meaning of words, other causes more historical or literary are at work. Certain terms are depreciated and others come into favor, as usage makes them pass from one class of society to another, from one domain of thought to another. Some authors of late Latin were also influenced in their choice of words by personal reasons—the search for effect, the desire of variety, poetic imitation, or sheer carelessness on the part of writers who were no longer anxious to give words the exact meaning which they possessed in the Classical period and so employed them with such changes as suited their fancy.

Examples of words which have changed their meaning as indicated above are the following:

Fores once "the door of a house" becomes "the house" itself. *Venae*, "veins," in late Latin often denotes "the body."

In classical Latin *negotium* means "business," public or private, but later it takes on the general sense of "human affairs," i.e., *res humanae*.

Adficere originally had the general sense of "affect" or "touch." In late Latin it acquires the special meaning of "charm."

Examples of *homo* in the sense of the "human body" are not rare in post-classical Latin. In fact passages exist in which late writers speak indifferently of *corpus* and *homo*.

Aversio, "the act of turning away," comes to signify "disgust," "repugnance."

Cultio, which means "culture" or "agriculture" in Cicero, often means "cult" or "veneration" later.

Inequitare properly means "to mount a horse." In late writers it often has the very curious metaphorical meaning of "to insult."

Through metonymy and the influence of the poets *lumina* designates "eyes," and *pectus* "soul" or "heart."

Some words take on so-called "strained" meanings. *Caecatus*, "blind," takes the sense of *occultatus*, "hidden." *Contiguus*, "neighboring," receives sometimes the sense of "who can be touched." *Credulitas*, "credulity," comes to be equivalent to *fides*, and is thus often used. *Patricius*, "patrician," is often used for *nobilis*, *divinus*.

These examples are but a very few of many similar changes of meaning, but they are enough to illustrate the necessity of recognizing such changes for an intelligent interpretation of the literature of the fathers. Much still remains to be done by way of studying the vocabulary of the late Latin writers, and strangely enough the little that has already been done has not been properly employed by those who have translated or commented on patristic literature. A narrow classical training stamps nearly all such works.

The American Academy in Rome announces its annual competitions for the fellowships in classical studies: a fellowship of the value of \$1,000 for one year, a fellowship of the value of \$1,000 a year for two years. The awards are made after competitions which are open to all unmarried citizens of the United States, who comply with the regulations of the Academy. Entries will be received until March 1. For detailed circular giving further particulars apply to the writer or to Roscoe Guernsey, Executive Secretary, American Academy in Rome, 101 Park Avenue, New York City.

The address of President Coolidge on "The Classics for America," delivered when he was Vice-President before the annual meeting of the American Classical League in Philadelphia in July, 1921, has been reprinted under the title "Thought the Master of Things" in President Coolidge's volume of addresses entitled "The Price of Freedom," published by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. The address has also been translated into French and published as the leading article in the *Revue de Paris* for August, 1924.

The Report of the Classical Investigation (Part I, page 204) recommends among other things that more emphasis be placed on the thought content of the Latin reading material. The following paragraph of the report makes definite suggestions towards this end.

If this purpose is to be attained, the pupil must in the first place understand something of the setting of the story. A reading of Caesar or Cicero, for example, if not preceded by a careful study of the historical background, is almost certain to fail of

this purpose. It seems quite impossible for the pupil to acquire this necessary background contemporaneously with his reading of the Latin text. We therefore recommend that some prescribed reading in English should precede the detailed study of Latin selections dealing with particular events or periods in order to give the pupil an intelligent understanding of the background and enable him to fit what he reads in Latin into its place in the general scheme.

Latin Notes for December, 1924, contain an excellent survey of the historical background of Cicero's "Oration for the Manilian Law."

Miss Sabin (Service Bureau for Classical Teachers at Teachers College, Columbia University, New York) announces as ready for distribution:

An outline for a debate for the Caesar class: "Resolved, that Caesar's methods were justified by his ultimate aims"; also a bibliography and page reference. Contributed by pupils in the Western High School, Baltimore, Md., under the supervision of Miss Jessie Ebaugh.

An outline for a debate for the Cicero class: "Resolved, that Cicero was courageous, sincere, and patriotic"; also a bibliography and page references. Contributed by pupils in the Western High School, Baltimore, Md., under the supervision of Miss Jessie Ebaugh.

Suggestions for a Caesar Model Exhibit.

Some Latin verses from *Silent Night, America, Onward Christian Soldiers, Adeste Fideles*, and *Jingle Bells*.

Any of the above items may be borrowed upon payment of postage or bought for five cents.

Latin Notes Supplement VI is now ready—an 8-page leaflet containing short accounts of classical club programs described in the Current Events Department of the *Classical Journal*; price 25 cents; also Supplement VII, "A Catechism for the Latin Teacher"; price 10 cents. This is a clarification of the Report of the Latin Investigation.

A very common method of teaching syntax is to "cross-examine" the pupil on grammatical structure, *after* the translation of the passage has been given. Personally I feel that this

procedure need not be open to objection if carried out properly, and certainly much good work has been done in that way. However, the following suggestions of the "Report" (p. 224 f.) may be an improvement. Certainly they are worth trying.

We believe that at present too much emphasis is placed on questions in formal syntax in connection with the Latin text being read and that the common practice of asking such questions *after* the translation of the passage has been given is especially open to objection. This form of drill on syntactical principles distracts the attention of the pupil from the thought of the passage he is reading, the passage which it is at that time his main business to comprehend and interpret. Questions of syntax should be asked after interpretation or translation only for the purpose of clearing up difficulties or correcting errors remaining after the passage has been read.

If the thought of the passage has been incorrectly interpreted or translated as a result of the pupil's failure to understand syntactical relations, it is the function of the teacher to have anticipated and removed the difficulty by preliminary questions or by encouraging the pupil in advance to ask questions in regard to his own difficulties.

I am often asked, "Is it desirable to have pupils write out the translation from Latin into English? Does this aid the poorer pupils in following the constructions?" Professor Ullman has been asked similar questions, and his answer, which I print below, practically coincides with my own:

The mere writing out of the translation from Latin to English is not objectionable but it is highly objectionable to permit the student to read this translation when he recites in class and I assume that this is the particular thing to which you refer. I do not believe that this method is of any help at all. On the other hand, it is desirable to ask the pupils occasionally to hand in a carefully prepared translation as an exercise in English.

The *Classical Journal* offers a reduced subscription rate of \$1.25 a year to undergraduates or graduate students provided a group of not less than five members is secured in any given institution. It is necessary that the money for these club subscriptions be collected in advance and that all copies of the *Journal* for any given institution be sent in one wrapper to the professor interested or to some member of the student group who will take the responsibility for distributing the copies. A club

rate of \$1 is also offered for the six numbers of the *Journal* beginning with the January issue. Address Prof. Frank J. Miller, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

During the recent war, when professors of the University of Louvain were seeking refuge in the universities of the United States, Prof. Paul van den Ven was received at Princeton as Professor of Byzantine Civilization. After the war, Professor van den Ven returned to Belgium to help in the reconstruction of his country, and the Professorship of Byzantine Civilization at Princeton ceased to exist. This represents, I believe, the sole attempt in the United States to study deeply Byzantine culture.

England, according to the *Classical Review*, has just made a beginning of such studies which augurs permanent success. The *Review* reads:

At last a beginning has been made of the study of Byzantine and Modern Greek. This year a Koraes Chair is to be established at University College, London, endowed by subscription and supported by a grant from the Greek Government. The professor has not yet been appointed; but lectures are to be given by Mr. L. Oeconomos on the Modern Language and Literature, and courses of public lectures by Professor Menardos of Athens (Modern Greek Poetry), Professor Diehl, of Paris (*Les Causes de la Grandeur de Byzance*), and Mr. J. Mavrogordato, M.A. (Modern Greek History). Mr. Oeconomos will also lecture on Religious Life in the Byzantine Empire of the twelfth century.

ROY J. DEFERRARI.

AFFILIATED COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL SECTION

One of the main purposes of affiliation is to aid in the standardization of our Catholic Secondary Schools. Among the various factors which enter into the realization of this purpose, the Comparative Record Report is one of considerable importance. This report, sent to the schools during the early part of the fall term, presents to each institution several points which indicate the relative standing of the institution as a unit in the affiliated group.

Through its results the faculty is given an impartial brief of the school's comparative position as regards each of the several branches taught. The strength or weakness of that position in each case is determined by the results of the yearly examinations together with the percents given to those who, although members of the class, did not take the tests. The reason why these latter are included comes from the fact that they were in the class during the year and have affected its position to some extent. They have been either a benefit to or a drag on the class. As stated in regulation number 19, page 48 of the Syllabus, these pupils are given a grade of 65 per cent. This rank or position given to each school evidences not merely the above mentioned weakness or strength as it exists in the school itself but as they compare with those resulting from the work as carried on in all the other schools of the group. In other words, this report shows the rank of each institution relative to the general average of the work done by all the schools in the several branches of the high school curriculum.

Due to various reasons it often happens that a teacher conducts classes in two or more branches, and in some of our high schools, especially in our smaller academies, one teacher has all the studies of one year in his charge. Without entering into the merits of these existing conditions or without suggesting any modification of this situation, it is our purpose to point out here the fact that by means of the Comparative Record Report the principal of each school is given additional evidences of the results attained by such a teacher in the several branches taught by him. If the principal personally feels that a teacher so situated is not realizing the best results, the findings as stated

on the report furnish him with additional facts for suggesting a change. In those cases where he perceives that the best results are not produced, due perhaps to inadequate preparation or other equally serious handicap, the report gives him not only the means for tactful suggestions but it provides for the removal of whatever might be regarded as partial or personal in his suggestions for improvement.

As a source of motivation to the pupils, in our opinion, there is no more effective means placed at the disposal of the school authorities. By the timely use of this report each pupil can be made to feel that the standing and reputation of his school, as a unit in the affiliated group, is, in the last analysis, dependent on the type of work he performs during the year. In other words, he is given a definite and personal reason for the faithful performance of his duty as a student and as a member of the school. The worth and excellence of the social aspect of this form of motivation should never be forgotten. In an age when materialism and its baneful influences are worming themselves into the very heart of our social, commercial and domestic circles, it becomes the duty of the school, as a social force, to do its utmost to stem this tide and neutralize its activity by the moral reagent of social motivation. What the parish spirit has done for the development and growth of the Catholic Church in the United States will be done by the stimulatory effects of this spirit of school solidarity for that life, of which the school is both a part and a preparation.

NOTES

The second of the Research Bulletins from the School of Education of Notre Dame University has just come from the press. Its title is "Experimental Courses in Religion." It is an analysis of the current trends in the reorganization of this most important branch of study. Dr. Hubbell and his associates, Brothers Leonard, C.S.C., and Agatho, C.S.C., are to be congratulated on the work they have done in preparing this work for the teachers of our high schools. We trust that a copy of this bulletin will be secured by each of the affiliated high schools and carefully studied. It is printed at the University of Notre Dame Press, Indiana.

St. Gabriel's High School of Hazelton, Pa., reports that the results of the yearly medical inspection have proved most gratifying. The response given and the interest shown by the parents of the students deserve special mention. The principal of this school has expressed her willingness to explain the plan which has been adopted to the authorities of any other affiliated school.

This school has recently been accepted as a life member in the Junior Red Cross League. A course in Advanced American History and Civics has been added to the curriculum. The following books have been added to the school library; The Harvard Classics, Our Wonder World, The Annual Cyclopaedia, Modern Eloquence, and Burton Holmes' Travelogues. A Keystone lantern and "600 set" slides and stereographic views were purchased for use in the various classes. Of the nineteen graduates of the class of 1924 from this school, eight have entered college, two entered normal schools and two have registered at a training school for nurses.

St. Agnes College, of Memphis, Tenn., announces that a new science building is about to be erected. The senior students of the music department of this institution broadcasted a special program on Monday, January 12. Special plans for summer school work are being prepared to meet the needs of the local teachers.

St. Joseph's Academy of Chestnut Hill, Pa., had among its visitors recently Sister Mary Paul, of The Maryknoll Community. Sister gave a lecture on the Aims and Needs of The Maryknoll Mission Work. Mr. Seumas McManus addressed the pupils of this school on Irish Folklore. Other lectures during the fall term were given by Dr. James Walsh and Mr. Frederick Paulding. Among the well-known musicians who have been guests at St. Joseph's were Miss Connolly, of Philadelphia; Nicola Montani, and Baron Hess, formerly of the Moscow Opera Company.

Miss Ruth Fox, of the English Department of Milwaukee Normal School, is giving a series of lectures to the students of St. Francis High School of Milwaukee, Wis., on Modern Poetry. The first lecture was given in December, touching on the principle differences between the old and the new poetry. The January topic was on Representative Modern Writers.

The faculties and students of the affiliated high schools extend to the teachers and pupils of St. Thomas High School, of Zanesville, Ohio, their deep sympathy in the loss of their revered and zealous pastor, The Very Rev. L. F. Kearney, O.P., S.T.M. Father Kearney died on November 29. In his passing the Church in America has lost a devoted champion, the Dominicans a brilliant member, and the people of St. Thomas' Parish a beloved guide and friend.

The new house for the senior students of St. Agnes Convent School of Sparkill, N. Y., was opened recently. Sister M. Dionysius has been appointed directress. Another high school was opened by this community at 182d Street, New York City. The school embraces a full commercial course and special provision for classes in music.

The work on the new chapel, novitiate and infirmary at St. Catherine's Academy, St. Catherine, Ky., is progressing rapidly. The Rev. J. S. Walsh, O.P., has recently been appointed chaplain at this institution.

On the grounds of Mt. St. Mary's-on-the-Hudson, Newburgh, N. Y., on October 12, the celebration of the Silver Jubilee of the Knights of Columbus, Council 444, took place. On this occasion His Eminence Cardinal Patrick Hayes addressed a throng of over 50,000 people. The students of the academy held a place of honor to the right of the altar which had been erected. The celebration closed with Solemn Pontifical Benediction.

LEO L. McVAY.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES

BISHOP SHAHAN'S TRIBUTE TO CARDINAL HAYES

On Wednesday, November 12, the New York Ecclesiastical Alumni of Catholic University tendered a banquet at the Commodore Hotel to Cardinal Hayes, in recognition of his elevation to the Cardinalate. About 100 were present, including several distinguished guests from other cities. At the close of the banquet Bishop Shahan made an address of congratulation in the name of the New York Alumni. Cardinal Hayes responded in a very feeling manner, and pledged his good-will and support to the University, of whose progress he spoke in terms of admiration. We present below the address of Bishop Shahan.

Mr. Chairman, when Pius XI raised our distinguished fellow alumnus, the Archbishop of New York, to the august senate of the Roman Church he imposed on us a debt of gratitude, which we meet here to discharge. Thereby were justified the prophetic sentiments of respect and esteem which we entertained for him during all the years of his priestly service, and during those other years of ecclesiastical administration in which he became so intimately acquainted with the life of the Catholic Church in this city and state.

I need not emphasize on this occasion the virtues, private and public, which his own life exhibited amid the evergrowing approval of all good citizens of this metropolis, without distinction of creed. I will only say that as the sphere of his service widened out, we grew ever more certain that Almighty God was preparing him for greater responsibilities. We rejoiced that in the circle of our University alumni there was growing an outstanding figure of the best promise in all those qualities for which the Catholic Church is most concerned in the matter of her ministry.

He would not be a true son of the Church of New York if his loyalty to the Holy See were not a prominent trait of his priestly life, but the Great War afforded him a unique occasion of asserting it in the most solemn way when at the bidding of Benedict XV he assumed the heavy burden of the administration of the Catholic religious ministry among our soldiers and sailors, fulfilling thereby a double duty of self-sacrificing obedience to the Holy See and of patriotic service to his country.

We were therefore rightly proud when Pius XI recognized so many personal merits, also the grandeur of the Church of New York and the secular splendor of this great city. No dissenting voice arose to affect the unanimous rejoicing that welcomed his

elevation to the oldest and noblest aristocracy of merit and service known to history. On the contrary, we may well believe that never in the annals of Catholicism was a modest, laborious, charitable priestly career crowned with a fuller popular approval, or a richer blessing bestowed by the voice of the people that on this occasion, we believe, commingled with the voice of God.

The Catholic University of America has awaited with impatience this day, in order to offer its cordial congratulations to Cardinal Hayes on the occasion of his entrance into the Sacred College, and to wish him every blessing that Heaven has not yet granted him. He is the first of our alumni to merit and receive this supreme honor. The University therefore feels itself privileged to add its note to the general chorus of joy and gratitude which acclaimed his entrance among the Cardinals of the Holy Roman Church.

A full generation has passed since he entered the Catholic University, with the dear companion who still lives to cherish the friend of his youth. What was then a promise and a hope has passed into the stage of fulfillment, partial, it is true, but advanced and serious enough to compel universal attention. Its one edifice of 1891 has developed into fourteen buildings, mostly of fine architecture; its 70 acres of land into 250; its thirty or forty matriculated students into more than one thousand, with nearly another thousand of summer school and part-time students. To the few ecclesiastical students of three decades ago have been added five hundred lay students and five hundred women students in Trinity College and the Catholic Sisters College. Its four or five professors have become one hundred, mostly American laymen. To its one faculty of Theology have been added the faculties of Canon Law, Civil Law, Philosophy, Letters and Science, nor do I doubt that our large pre-medical school will in due time develop into a faculty of Medicine with its hospital and research laboratories. I may add that its one affiliated religious community of 1891 has grown into twenty, while the truly rural solitudes of Brookland have become a thriving suburb of Washington, with a Catholic parish and parochial school at either end.

Simultaneously the Catholic Church in the United States has grown from a body of eight millions, more or less, to more than eighteen millions; its priests from eight thousand to twenty-three thousand, its parochial schools from three thousand to more than six thousand, its parishes to over eleven thousand, and its school children from over six hundred thousand to about two million, figures which compare favorably with the growth of our continental population from a total of sixty-six millions in 1890 to the one hundred and ten millions of the last census.

Amid this unexampled Catholic growth our University has been privileged to make some contribution, apart from its habitat

and material resources. It has provided for many dioceses excellent officials of administration, superintendents of schools and of organized charities. Our seminaries and colleges have had such profit from it as they wanted, nor is it a small one. The professions, liberal and technical, have drawn a large Catholic element from the University, young as yet, but giving everywhere an honorable account of their training, and known everywhere as staunch Catholic young men in the front rank of future leadership. No one will deny the great debt of Catholic education and Catholic charity during the last three decades, by and large, to the University. Its professors, and not a few of its students, have nobly responded, straining the limit, to the calls of our holy religion all over the country. Their useful writings, the many printed dissertations of its students, their daily cooperation in the provinces of education and charity and of general Catholic service and utility, like the Catholic Encyclopedia and the Universal Knowledge Foundation, are known to all who are interested in the broad humane lines of true progress, so closely correlated to the nature, purpose and spirit of American Catholicism.

During the years of the University's growth and works Cardinal Hayes has remained a loyal and helpful friend of the great work to which four popes have encouraged our hierarchy and our people in terms of profound concern. And if I have dwelt at some length on the development of the University it is because through it all we have grown accustomed to his good-will and active interest, his support amid trials and obstacles, and his frank pride in its development as an active center of the highest education under Catholic auspices. As a member of our Board of Trustees we are greatly indebted to him, not alone for his assiduous attendance at all meetings, despite the pressure of his immediate duties, but also for his counsel and cooperation, not to speak of the sympathy and interest which as an alumnus of the University he brings to its deliberations. This faint outline of what Catholic education owes him would surely be incomplete if we did not recognize the share of Manhattan College and St. Joseph's Seminary in the formation of that mind and heart to which are henceforth committed so many great interests of religion and civilization in this wonder-city of all time, worthy of a praise as dithyrambic as Virgil ever poured forth on Rome or Victor Hugo on Paris. Nay, does not the great city itself come in for a large part in the formation of this prince of Holy Church? Is he not its own veriest child, and is there in the world an open school of humanity in which faith, hope, and love, enthusiasm and vision, all the highest emotions, shot through with devotion to our common human welfare, are so constantly taught and exemplified so regularly on all sides, and overtop the dark and ugly currents of sin and vice and all the moral ills and

wrongs that disfigure the way of human life as nature and nature's God would have it?

Another word, and I have done. No one will wonder if, when we meet to honor Patrick Cardinal Hayes, we find it in our hearts to honor and thank Mother Ireland, "magna parens virum" for all that she means to His Eminence. Is he not the Chief Pastor of St. Patrick's Cathedral, that all but living monument and symbol of Irish Catholic faith and courage? And was it not under the special protection of the glorious Apostle of Ireland that the most ancient folk of Europe, long doomed to extinction, people, race, and nation, entered here upon the magnificence and abundance of American freedom and opportunity, the most god-like gift ever made to man since the dawn of creation, but which alone, perhaps, could equate the losses and sufferings of so many hopeless centuries!

Truly, "Mirabilis Deus in sanctis suis!" That Saint Patrick under whose aegis, so to speak, Northern and Central Europe acquired the Catholic faith, the Latin tongue, and Christian civilization, stood by surely when his beloved people came out of a hard bondage and began on the banks of the lordly Hudson their westward way, spreading as they went religion and patriotism until they rested at the Golden Gate, after an active popular apostolate that covered as much territory as ever the Roman Empire controlled. What greater blessing could we wish His Eminence and his beloved Church of New York than the endurance of this wonderful ancestral faith in that life without end which the Gospel of Christ promises so eloquently, and a practical belief in which is the only secure foundation of our actual civilization.

In the name of the University, of its professors and students, and of its Alumni, ecclesiastical and lay, I offer again to His Eminence our sincere congratulations, and our prayers that he may be spared many happy years, in good health and full strength, to Our Holy Father as a judicious counsellor, to his own clergy and people as a father in Christ, and to the Catholic University of America as a loyal son and a friend in all needs.

EDUCATIONAL PERIODICALS

The American School Board Journal (January): This is the twenty-fifth annual school building number and is contributed to mainly by architects who are specialists in school building work. Some fifteen articles offer valuable help on various phases of this problem. The articles are supplemented by many pictures and plans which illustrate some of the finest examples of American school architecture.

The Catholic School Journal (December): "The Religion of

Education" is the title under which a Christian Brother records his thoughts on the purpose of education. Sister M. Rose Gertrude, C.S.C., A.M., contributes a plan which she has found effective in "Whetting the Appetite for Pre-school Reading." A thoughtful study of "The Teaching of Composition," by Sister M. Louise, S.S.J., Ph.D., commences in this issue. "The Teacher's Cooperation with the Reference Librarian" is the subject of a contribution by Burton Confrey, A.M.

Educational Administration and Supervision (December): W. F. Tidyman describes a survey which showed the value of a "Teachers' Questionnaire as a Device in Supervision." "The Development and Control of Extra-Curricular Activities in State Normal Schools," by S. Elizabeth Pope contains helpful suggestions on this important question. How to supply the necessary knowledge of subject-matter, of method, of the child, and of society represents "Four Major Problems in the Professional Training of Teachers" which are discussed by W. D. Armentrout.

The Elementary School Journal (December): Charles H. Judd deals with the psychological significance of money and the neglect of the schools to stress it as a social institution. Under title of "Five Factors in the Teaching of Ideals," W. W. Charters discusses the following topics: creating a desire for the ideal, diagnosing the situation, developing a plan of action, requiring practice, and generalizing ideals. Franklin Bobbitt continues his series of articles on curriculum-making with a study of the question, "What Understanding of Human Society Should Education Develop?" Also worthy of note is H. E. Bennett's contribution, "The Text as a Factor in Poor English."

The English Journal (January): The report of Essie Chamberlain's address on curriculum-making in English, delivered before the National Council of Teachers of English, indicates the wide scope of English teachers' work, collectively and individually. Joseph Conrad is the subject of an interesting study by J. B. Priestly. "Modern Drama and Its Place in the Classroom" supplies Irwin C. Poley with material for a very readable and illuminating article. Other contributions include "A Laboratory Experiment in English Composition," by Elmer C. Stauffer, and Dora V. Smith's "Lesson on Milton's 'L'Allegro'."

The Journal of Educational Method (January, 1925): Guy

Bates describes a survey undertaken to determine how much time is required by each of the different types of work which the elementary school principal is called upon to perform. Emma B. Grant outlines a procedure which was used successfully in "motivating the Course in Test and Measurements for the Teacher-in-training." The first instalment of an article on "The Practical Classroom Use of the Conception of Concomitants," by A. E. Folsam, appears in this issue.

The Pedagogical Seminary (December, 1924): G. Sergi briefly outlines the "Reform of Italian Universities," two innovations of which are the autonomy of the universities, and state examination for professional service. The Ohio Literary Test is fully described by Violet H. Foster and Henry H. Goddard. Charles Ben Minner contributes a study of the history, means and justification of higher education for the blind. A real problem is ably treated by Alice Minnie Heres Heniger under title of "The Spoken Drama versus 'The Movies' for children." Mary Cover Jones contributes "A Laboratory Study of Fear."

The School Review (December): R. L. Lyman discusses the various problems of the new Junior High Schools of Chicago, as regards building program, teaching staff, curriculum and classification. "The Social Program for the Unsocial High-School Girl" is treated in an interesting and constructive manner by Caroline Power. Edith L. Hilderbrandt gives an account of an investigation which showed that the high school student of today misspells on an average of 2.51 words in not more than fifteen minutes of free written discourse.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETINS

A series of research bulletins dealing with problems in the several phases of Catholic education is to be published under the direction of the Department of Education of the Catholic University. These studies will aim to set forth the results of original investigations and also to acquaint teachers and students of educational science with the scientific methods used to solve the leading problems in the field. Among the titles which have been chosen are the following: The Elementary School Teacher's Use of Educational Tests, The Measurement of Spelling Ability, The Validation of Tests, The History of Intelligence Tests. The publication of these bulletins will begin immediately.

K. J. C.

REVIEWS AND NOTICES

Principles of Education, by J. Crosby Chapman and George S. Counts. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924. Pp. 645. Price, \$2.75.

The Philosophy of Education is rightly considered one of the basic subjects in the professional training of the teacher; for unless he has a clear idea of the end he is striving to achieve and of the means that are at his disposal for the attainment of that end, his best efforts will of necessity fall short of their full fruition since they lack the driving power of direction. But this knowledge of ends and means can be gained only by a careful study of the philosophy underlying the educative process. Nor will it suffice for the teacher to rest satisfied with the cut and dried philosophy of education he may have formulated during his academic days; for, while he may well, nay should, during his training period gain a clear grasp of the ultimate aim of education, which follows from the nature and destiny of man and must, therefore, remain ever the same, he must at the same time realize that secondary objectives change with the changing conceptions of society, and that scientific discoveries in the fields of psychology and sociology make the adoption of new methods and new practices imperative if the process of education is to be efficiently and economically controlled. Hence, as the authors of the present work say in their preface, "there is always a need for a restatement of educational philosophy"; and the interested teacher will welcome any new discussion of the subject that comes from reliable sources.

That Messrs. Chapman and Counts have made a distinct and noteworthy contribution to the literature in the Philosophy of Education can hardly be denied; for, while they disclaim any title to originality, they have given us a scholarly and interesting presentation of the Principles of Education based upon a careful study of the nature and needs of the individual and of the society to which he belongs.

The work is divided into four parts treating respectively of: The Place of Education in Individual and Social Life; The Psychological Foundations of Education; The Sociological Foundations of Education, and The Principles Governing the Conduct of the School. The three latter parts are in reality an elabora-

tion of the problems touched on in Part I, which is intended to give the student a broad view of the whole field of education. Each part is subdivided into a number of chapters, or "problems," of which there are twenty-five in all, dealing with the major principles of education. Each chapter takes up in detail a series of subordinate problems and is closed with a list of additional questions for class discussion. The arrangement is quite logical, and the text covers pretty thoroughly the principle moot points in the Philosophy of Education.

With the solutions arrived at the reader may, of course, agree or disagree. As for the reviewer, he regrets that he cannot recommend *in toto* and without qualifications a work the perusal of which afforded him so much genuine pleasure. There are many of the problems with the solution of which he is in thorough accord, and these he would not hesitate to commend to the study of any reader. On the other hand, there are some chapters that he would approve only with reservations; while some of them present a line of argument based upon such a flimsy foundation of scientific evidence that he feels they should have no place in a textbook of this kind.

To be more specific. In Chapter 17 the authors discuss the problem of religious education which they rightly conclude should form a part of the training of every child, since it meets one of the fundamental needs of human life. Their discussion of this question is on the whole remarkably sane and sensible, and they make short shrift of the arguments of those who would abolish religion from the school. Yet in this chapter there are some strange statements and stranger implications. What are we to think, for example, of the assertion that "thoughtful and sincere men have vigorously maintained that the net contribution of religion in the past has been evil" (p. 347)? Who are these "thoughtful and sincere men"? Are the authors among the number? Upon what grounds do they base their conviction? That evil has been done in the name of religion no one will deny, but that the evil has outweighed the good would certainly be difficult to prove. A careful study of the history of Christian civilization has led many "thoughtful and sincere men" to the opposite conclusion. Again we are told (p. 349) that a religion that would be acceptable to all men would be a "religion—with-

out mysteries, without dogmas, etc." This is apparently a quotation, though the source is not given. It implies, of course, that men would accept a religion made by man and not one revealed by God. Mysteries in religion for some reason are a stumbling block to many minds while they accept mysteries in nature and in science without any compunction. Even the present authors hold that "an appreciation of that mystery which must always shroud life and the universe must remain a vital part of religion" (loc. cit.). One is inclined to ask why one who admits the existence of insoluble problems in the world of nature, of which he knows so much, hesitates to grant the possibility of mysteries in the world of spirit, of which he knows so little. One wonders what must be the religious convictions of the authors when they tell us that "to men of vision like Zoroaster, Confucius, Jesus, Mohammed, St. Francis and other rare spirits we should turn for spiritual insight, and for an estimate of the nature and worth of the religious life" (p. 338). Is the reader to infer that from *any* of these we may receive guidance in the way of truth and of life?

One might pass over these statements, as there is bound to be a difference of opinion between writer and reader when they do not profess the same religious belief; but a similar argument cannot be adduced to justify the authors' introduction into their text of a series of problems defending the mechanistic teachings of the Behaviorists. There is no need here to enter into a refutation of Behaviorism. That task pertains to treatises on psychology. But the point the reviewer wishes to stress is that the authors of the present work recognize the weakness of the theory and practically apologize for their position with regard to the same. Thus they say on page 94: "It is only as a methodology that we embrace Behaviorism. As psychologists, writing an exact psychology we champion it for its usefulness, but as philosophers, writing a theory of education, we reject it for its arrogance"; and they conclude that "a philosophy of education bound by a rigid Behaviorism, disregarding by definition the core of human experience, would be fatuous and futile" (ibid.). Now, how in the name of all that is logical are we to reconcile these contradictory statements? Are not the authors here professedly writing a philosophy of education? How, then, can they defend

a theory which, if accepted, would render a philosophy of education "fatuous and futile"? Is it conceivable that one may defend as a psychologist a doctrine that he rejects as a philosopher? Is it possible, as the authors assert, "to assume the behavioristic position, and yet, with the wider sweep of the philosopher, to suppose that in some way or another the psychical and the physical do interact, or possibly that the two sets of data are but different aspects of a single process?" In the humble opinion of the reviewer it is not. A man's psychology is a part and parcel of his philosophy; what is false in the one field cannot be true in the other.

In their suggestions for the use of this text in instruction, the authors recommend that "at the discretion of the teacher the technical material in Problem 7, which relates to language habits and the strictly mechanistic theory of behavior, may be omitted." "This," they add, "can be done without impairing the integrity of the treatment, and for the immature student will undoubtedly be a wise procedure" (p. 629). Is not this in itself a confession of weakness? Does it not almost lead one to question the sincerity of the authors? The reviewer ventures the suggestion that this mechanistic material be omitted from the next issue of the book, since it "*can be done without impairing the integrity of the treatment*"; for, as he sees it, "this short excursion into the realm of philosophical speculation" (p. 98) detracts seriously from the merits of an otherwise valuable work.

EDWARD B. JORDAN.

Books Received

Educational

Bibliography of the Annual Proceedings of the Catholic Educational Association, 1904-1923. Collins, Katherine A., Education Bulletins, No. 6 National Catholic Welfare Conference, Bureau of Education.

A Handbook of American Private Schools, 1924-25. Porter Sargent, 11 Beacon Street, Boston, Mass.

Journal of Education; being the report of the Superintendent of Education for Nova Scotia, April, 1924. Halifax, N. S.

Journal of Education; being the report of the Superintendent of Education for Nova Scotia, October, 1924. Halifax, N. S.

Textbooks

Allen, Nellie B., and Robinson, Edward K., *Stories and Sketches, What People Are Doing*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1924, pp. 30, Price, 40 cents.

Andrews, Jane, *Ten Boys Who Lived on the Road from Long Ago to Now* (new edition). Boston: Ginn & Co., pp. 248, Price, 64 cents.

Browning, Robert, *Pippa Passes*; Irvine, A. L. Editor. New York: Oxford University Press, 1924, pp. 84, Price, 45 cents.

De Mille, A. B., A.M., *Three English Comedies* (She Stoops to Conquer, The Rivals, The School for Scandal). New York: Allyn & Bacon, 1924, pp. vii+479. Price, \$1.00.

Euripides, *Hecuba* (introduction and notes by J. T. Sheppard). New York: Oxford University Press, 1924, pp. 103. Price \$1.00.

Henry, Ruth L., *Piececitas Spanolas Faciles*. New York: Allyn & Bacon, 1924, pp. v+105.

Lincoln, Abraham, *Addresses and Letters* (Avent, John M., Editor). New York: Allyn & Bacon, 1924, pp. 239. Price, 80 cents.

Pargment, M. S., *Le Francis Oral* (A Manual of French Conversation). Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1924, pp. vii+322. Price, \$1.20.

Payne, E. George, Ph.D.; *We and Our Health* (Book II). New York: American Viewpoint Society, Inc., pp. 133.

Quintero, Serafin Y Joaquin Alvarez, *Las de Cain* (Comedia in tres actos). New York: Allyn & Bacon, 1924, pp. xii+194. Price, 80 cents.

Rostand, Edmond, *Les Romanesques*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1924, pp. 135. Price, 64 cents.

Tennyson, Alfred, *Selected Poems of* (Dunn, S. G., M.A., Editor). New York: Oxford University Press, 1924, pp. 144. Price, 85 cents.

General

Bevenot, Dom Hugh G., *Pagan and Christian Rule*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., pp. xvi+183. Price, \$1.75.

Blazier, Florence E., *Investigation of Nursing as a Professional Opportunity for Girls*. Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.

Carmichael, Montgomery, *Christopher and Cressida*. New York: Macmillan, 1924, pp. 211. Price, \$2.00.

Clarke, Isabel C., *Children of the Shadow* (A Novel). New York, Benziger Bros., 1924, pp. 425. Price \$2.00.

Conway, Rev. Bertrand L., C.S.P., *The Virgin Birth*. New York: Paulist Press, 1924, pp. 62. Price, 75 cents.

McDonough, Rev. Michael V., *Three-Minutes Homilies*. New York: Benziger Bros., 1924, pp. 329. Price, \$2.00.

O'Connor, Norreys Jephson, *Changing Ireland* (Literary Backgrounds of the Irish Free State, 1889-1922). Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1924, pp. 259. Price, \$2.50.

Sisters of Notre Dame; *Communion Devotions for Religious*. New York, Benziger Bros., 1924, pp. xii+743. Price, \$2.75.

The Small Missal. New York: Benziger Bros., 1924, pp. xvi+436. Price \$1.75.

Whelan, Rev. John A., O.S.A., *Sermons*. New York: Benziger Bros., 1924, pp. 294. Price, \$2.00.

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